

The Social Studies

Continuing

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES



Continuing

The Historical Outlook

Volume XXV, Number 1

January, 1934

Contents

Announcement of Change in Editorial Management, <i>by Dr. C. A. Beard</i>	5
Jew Street, <i>by K. M. Jones</i>	6
Historical Periodicals in the College Libraries of Pennsylvania, <i>by Prof. P. W. Gates</i>	10
Silver Inflation and the Senate in 1933, <i>by Dr. Jeannette P. Nichols</i>	12
Shall Formal History Be Dropped from the Curriculum? <i>by Prof. H. D. Winters</i>	18
A Lesson with World Maps, <i>by D. C. Ridgley</i>	20
The Processes of Learning History in Middle Childhood, <i>by Mary G. Kelty</i>	21
The Study of Local History as a School Hobby, <i>by W. H. Mohr</i>	31
Index to Volume XXIV	Center Pages

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, by Dr. H. E. Wilson, 32; Book Reviews, edited by Profs. H. J. Carman and J. B. Brebner, 35; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 44; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 46.

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A N N O U N C E M E N T

■ With this number of *The Historical Outlook*, the title of the magazine is changed to **THE SOCIAL STUDIES**, and the editorial management passes out of the hands of the editor who has directed its program for the past twenty-four years. From now onward the editorial policy, under the trusteeship of the American Historical Association, is to be directed by a joint committee composed of members whose academic interests include all the social sciences, with **William G. Kimmel**, the Executive Secretary of the Social Studies Investigation, as Managing Editor.

■ It is with much satisfaction that those who have controlled the magazine in the past now face this new departure. It represents the fruition of hopes which hitherto have seemed incapable of accomplishment. It makes possible the fixing of definite editorial programs. It guarantees the continued helpfulness of the social sciences other than history. It brings to the support of the magazine not only these other social studies, but formal education as well. It provides for continuous correspondence and reporting of important happenings in the social science field.

■ Dr. Charles A. Beard, Chairman of the Executive Board on **THE SOCIAL STUDIES**, has stated the details of the new organization in our opening pages. It is evident that the new management will be of great value to the subscribers and readers of the magazine, and to the large number of persons, not at present subscribers, who are interested in the social sciences. For the past help from contributors and subscribers we are sincerely grateful. For the future the new management promises a program far beyond what has ever been attempted before. It has our whole-hearted support and coöperation.

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The Social Studies

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY
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WILLIAM G. KIMMEL
Managing Editor

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Announcement of Change in Editorial Management

By CHARLES A. BEARD
Chairman of the Executive Board

With this issue *The Historical Outlook* becomes **THE SOCIAL STUDIES**. The American Historical Association, with the advice and coöperation of the National Council for the Social Studies, assumes responsibility for financing and directing the editorial management of the magazine. For the benefit of the public the principal considerations leading to this assumption of responsibility should be set forth, in order that there may be no misunderstanding of the circumstances and spirit of the transaction.

In the first place, the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools, although sponsored by the American Historical Association, included in its membership representatives of the other social sciences, geography and education. It is completing its work, and calls for a continuing agency to supply teachers with materials and guidance for current purposes.

In the second place, the task of supplying current materials and guidance calls for a concentration of interests and efforts. It cannot be discharged efficiently unless a competent staff is provided and funds furnished to defray the cost of the undertaking. Under the circumstances it seemed that the responsibility of providing such a staff and of such funds had to be assumed by a new management.

In the third place, if such a financing is to occur, some organization having continuous existence and capable of acting as a trustee must, of necessity, assume legal responsibility for the custody of funds and the discharge of fiduciary obligations. There

must be some organization to raise, safeguard, disburse, and account for funds.

In the fourth place, the American Historical Association will have on hand at the termination of the work of its Commission on the Social Studies a balance sufficient to defray the editorial expenses of **THE SOCIAL STUDIES** for a brief period and is taking steps to provide additional financing.

Although these circumstances imposed upon the American Historical Association certain evident obligations in respect to leadership, it has manifested no desire to "monopolize" **THE SOCIAL STUDIES** or to dominate the editorial policy of the magazine. It had no legal power to transfer to any other body funds entrusted to it for the advancement of the social studies; and there was no other organization prepared to assume full financial responsibilities for the editorial management of the magazine. Had there been such an association or society prepared to assume financial and legal responsibility, there is reason to believe that the American Historical Association would have been happy to relinquish its obligations.

The position of the American Historical Association, then, is that of a trustee, not of an intellectual dictator, for **THE SOCIAL STUDIES**. It has chosen a board representing various branches of social science. It proposes to widen this representation by creating a larger board of advisory editors and by asking for the active participation of the American Economic Association, the American Political Science Association, and the American Sociological Society.¹ Thus the American His-

torical Association acts as a legal trustee and provides for a fair representation of all social studies, including history, on the board responsible for the editorial policy of the magazine and for the apportionment of space given to the several social studies.

This much should be said to allay the alarms of those who may rightly fear the transformation of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* into a purely historical journal. And catholicity of interest may be expected from the American Historical Association, in view of the arrangements which it has developed for the management of the magazine, if not from the nature of History itself.

Given this generous charter by the American Historical Association, the board has formulated a broad policy to include the following features. The magazine will be devoted to all the social studies, with a greater measure of consideration to subjects other than history. It will focus attention on the social studies from the elementary schools through the junior college, with special emphasis on the secondary schools. It will lay greater stress on the contents, interpretations, and analyses of the social studies, but it will not neglect problems of methods, devices, teacher aids, and testing. In the opinion of the editorial board, content and method cannot be sharply separated without doing damage to both phases of instruction. With respect to content, *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* will seek to keep abreast of the most important current happenings of a basic character and to furnish teachers with authentic materials and informed interpretations relative to contemporary political, economic, and social affairs. Recognizing the fact that

secondary school teachers are being called upon more and more to take leadership in the field of adult education, *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* will endeavor to provide helpful suggestions for teachers who deal with current problems in this connection. Where matters of teacher training in the social sciences come into purview, *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* will consider them from the standpoint of the social sciences rather than that of pedagogy in any strict sense of that term.

Such a policy means, therefore, constant coöperation among teachers of social studies in all parts of the country and also the coöperation of teachers and teachers' associations with the editorial board of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*. For this reason the board now invites suggestions and comments from teachers and hopes to keep a living contact with them in making *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* useful to the profession and, more important still, to the American commonwealth which the profession serves. It is the constant communion of minds which prevents the letter from killing instruction in the social studies.

In assuming its responsibilities, the Executive Board is bound by a deep sense of obligation to pay tribute to Dr. Albert E. McKinley and his colleagues and contributors who have devoted themselves unselfishly to *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* and given it a place of significance in the world of education. The board hopes to be worthy of the tradition which it inherits and to meet the new issues in the same valiant spirit.

¹ An announcement of the personnel of both boards will be made in a later issue.

Jew Street

By KAREN MONRAD JONES

Judengasse. Even the name is gone. The quaint houses are gone, swept away by flames. The thirty-foot wall has vanished. Families tracing their ancestry back into mediaeval times, have built themselves mansions on *Bockenheimer Landstrasse*, grand old patrician street of the nineteenth century. Their Jewish names are intertwined inseparably with German cultural life.

And yet every child in an antique city like Frankfurt on the Main knows the story and the meaning

of the *Judengasse*. Knows that what is happening now is only what has happened before. For always, in an economic crisis, a scapegoat has been sought in the Jew. *Cherchez le juif* is a familiar cry. And now in the guise of race purification it rouses no amazement among the German people. It is not new nor is it entirely mediaeval. It is something periodic, recurring together with depressions, though less cruelly than in by-gone centuries. It is not easy for an American to understand. History

is not so real to us as to the European who has never escaped his ancient surroundings. We do not even know what the Ghetto was.

Perhaps nowhere in Germany is the history of the Ghetto more vivid than in Frankfurt am Main. Living there recently for a year, we discovered bit by bit the strange and contradictory story of exploitation, persecution, suffering, of encouraging welcome, of imperial and municipal protection, of high Hebrew scholarship, generosity, pride of race, of rise to power and to distinction. It is as paradoxical as the city itself.

Frankfurt is very up-to-date, boasts of its modernity, clings to its past, treasures its history and preserves its landmarks. The new Frankfurt is cosmopolitan, its industrial section as ugly as in any other rapidly over-grown city, its residential sections victoriously pretentious, charmingly lovely or ultra-modernly severe. But the heart of the old city is still one of the quaintest and most interesting in all Germany.

There is a magnificent old market-place called the *Römerberg*, with memories of fairs, political up-risings, religious festivals, imperial coronations, a fine cathedral tower rising beyond a labyrinth of miniature streets with painted and carved houses, upper stories almost meeting above your head. There is a charming bridge and famous old street called the *Fahrgasse*, chief thoroughfare between north and south from Carolingian times down through the middle ages, the path of marching armies, merchant caravans, royal equipages, wandering scholars. Beyond the *Fahrgasse*, in the midst of drab squalor, is an open square and here you come upon a solid stone wall overhung with green-laden branches of luxuriant trees and shrubs and nowhere a glimpse into the garden you imagine it hides. Nowhere a gate or a door. An impenetrable wall. But beside the door of a substantial red building adjoining it, you discover an almost invisible sign: *Eingang zum Friedhof*. It is the old Jewish graveyard, fraught with memories of the Ghetto. Here, within these walls, the Jews of Frankfurt, for six hundred years, buried their dead, beside each other, on top of each other and again on top of each other, until no space at all could be found.

Through the door of the synagogue you enter the *Friedhof*, the most memorable and moving spot in all the quaint *Altstadt* of Frankfurt. It is a strangely silent and pathetic spot, wild and seemingly neglected, with tall grasses and queen's lace, elderberry bushes and maple trees. Here is utter seclusion. The birds alone break the stillness. Their song is as varied and as full-throated as in the deepest wood. And everywhere creeps the glossy green ivy, carpeting the ground, climbing up trees, and covering the gravestones.

At first you scarcely see the stones hidden in the rampant growth. Then you come upon them among the trees, hundreds of them, thousands of them, seven thousand, one set behind the other, large massive red sandstone memorial tablets covered with Hebrew inscriptions. They lean against each other, they mass themselves together, they rise up on a mound in a far corner like an accusing army and you remember hearing of a night three hundred years ago when all the little Jewish colony of Frankfurt, men, women and children, clad in their white death robes, huddled terror-stricken here in the graveyard, while the plebeian dictator Fettmilch and his followers plundered their houses until morning came and the Jews were dragged from their sanctuary and brought on board a ship and sent sailing away down the river to look for new homes.

In the early thirteenth century the Jews lived in safety and in peace, not in enforced separation from the Christians, yet by preference close together, bound by ties of religion, race and trade, in the center of affairs southeast of the cathedral near the old bridge. One of the greatest mediaeval Jewish scholars, Rabbi Simon Hadarschan, found in Frankfurt undisturbed leisure and toleration for years of study and writing.

Yet in 1241 the Jews of Frankfurt were massacred!

Mongolian hordes had come plundering and killing from Hungary and Poland. The Jews at this time were expecting the fulfillment of some of their prophecies and went about with a look of hope and bliss upon their faces. People looked upon them with suspicion. The rumor spread that they were aiding the Mongols with food and weapons. It needed only an excuse, a small matter, a local quarrel, the refusal of a family to allow their son to be baptised, and the suppressed fear and fury of the mob broke loose. Gates and doors of the houses of Jews were battered down, axes were used, stones were cast, arrows shot, people cast into the river Main, houses with their inmates burned, and the Jewish quarter south and east of the cathedral lay a desolate waste. Their synagogue was gone. Over a hundred and fifty lay dead, nearly the whole of the little congregation!

Afterward the citizens of Frankfurt were frightened. They had apparently been mistaken. The Mongolians had hewn down Jews as well as Christians. Was it possible that they had not been allies after all? And the mob of Frankfurt had killed the protégés of the emperor, the imperial *Kammerknechte*, the private possession of the emperor, the source of steady income flowing into the royal coffers. For that is what the Jews were and that explains their paradoxical position, the good will of

the emperor in the midst of unbelievable exploitation.

They were never treated as individuals, always as a group; they were bought, sold, pawned, and when knights gave service, horses, men, to the emperor, the Jews gave money. They were not allowed to leave the country without permission. "You belong to us with body and possessions," said Ludwig the Bavarian. "We may do with you whatever we please." And they did. When the emperor wanted to reward his kinsman, Gottfried of Eppstein, or other neighboring nobles, for true and faithful service in war or election time, he permitted them to draw upon the Jews of Frankfurt. It was to his advantage to keep them rich. While Christians were forbidden to lend money for interest, the emperor closed his eyes to the usury of the Jews. "He allowed the sponge to soak itself full so that he might squeeze it dry according to his needs," writes an historian of the Jews. Ludwig the Bavarian, who was always especially short of cash, was especially "good" to the Jews, above all to those in Frankfurt, where he frequently stayed. He called them his *liebe Kammerknechte* and in spite of heavy taxes and levies, they mourned him when he died.

After the massacre of 1241, the mob of Frankfurt had been "forgiven." The famous fairs soon drew the Jews again to the city and for a hundred years they increased in numbers and in wealth. A new and flourishing colony grew up south and east of the cathedral near the old bridge, which brought caravans of trade, travelers from north and south, east and west, royal processions, to the city of imperial elections and coronations.

But in 1349 a second massacre wiped out the Jews!

Black Death was devastating the countries of Europe. People were terrified, hysterical. Again it was *cherchez le juif*. This time the destruction was even more complete than before. Not even through baptism could one escape. Not a Jew was left in Frankfurt!

When they came again, it was under more difficult conditions. They came very slowly. Heretofore, they had been merchants on a large scale, not mere money-lenders. Now the rise of the cities to power, the development of the merchants' and artisans' guilds, their jealousy and fear of competition, put more and more restrictions upon the Jews until nothing was left for them but money-lending and the lowest form of trade, the *Trödelhandel*, selling the odds and ends that accumulated in their cellars as "security" for money lent. The smith pawned his anvil, the sailor his anchor, or even his ship, the fisher his nets, the tailor his shears, the bell-maker the tongue of his bell, the carpenter his saw, the merchant his cloth; kegs of wine, flour, everything

found its way into the cellar of the Jew. And he grew rich.

Both the emperor and the city continued to levy heavy taxes upon him. The church council in Basel issued rules and regulations: the Jew must wear different clothes and must live apart from the Christians, not near churches. On Sundays and feast days he must close his windows and doors. In Frankfurt people complained because the Jews lived so near the cathedral, but they were probably still more worried because it was the liveliest part of town, where one could snap up trade before anyone else in fair-time. Again and again the proposal was made to force them to leave the much-prized locality.

In 1460 the long-threatened Ghetto became a reality. The city built a row of houses outside the old twelfth century walls that had been left standing around the inner city when new fortifications had been built farther out. The little street could be shut off entirely from the rest of the city by three gates, locked and guarded at night. Here for three centuries and a half the Jews lived apart like outcasts. No Christian lived in the *Judengasse*. No Jew was allowed to live anywhere else.

The city did what it could to reconcile the protesting Jews. They built a synagogue, a parish house, a dance hall, an inn for the many Jews who came to the fairs. They built houses with arched cellars for storing goods, arranged for ritual baths and for drinking water. But this isolation had serious results lasting down into our own times. The Jews grew bitter, the Christians insolent and haughty. Differences were emphasized. New ideas penetrated slowly into the Ghetto. The Jews lost their self-respect and grew careless about appearances.

In the sixteenth century the *Judengasse* swarmed with newcomers. Trade in Frankfurt flourished. The Calvinists from the Netherlands sought refuge from the despotism of Philip the Second of Spain. They came in great streams to Frankfurt, bringing with them their skill in silk and cloth weaving. At first they were cordially received. They brought prosperity with them; money, fame, trade. The fame of the fairs grew. The Jews, too, came in greater numbers than ever. There was no place for them to live but in the Ghetto. To make room for them houses were divided. Rear houses were added and added again, four standing one behind the other. Houses were built on the roofs. The street grew narrower, dirtier. The cellars were heaped with books, beds, dishes, clothes, jewelry. Only at fair-time were the Jews allowed to rent space for their wares in the arched halls of citizens' houses. The rest of the year they carried on their trade in the Ghetto or sought customers in the inns or

through the country-side. They began to deal in other goods besides those pawned. Gems, gold, silver, pewter, were their specialties. Whatever the Christian merchants from outside Frankfurt did not sell at the fairs, they sold to the Jews for very little. The Jews became dangerous competitors of the local shop-keepers. The middle classes hated them. The upper classes were more lenient because they could always get money from the Jews.

Political power in Frankfurt was in the hands of a clique of patricians. The artisans and small tradesfolk were clamoring for their rights and protesting against the graft of those in power and against the favoritism shown the Jews. The leaders of the uprising had curious names. Fettmilch, the *Lebküchler* (gingerbread man), Schopp, the tailor, and Gerngrosz, the cabinetmaker. They were successful for a time and Fettmilch was dictator. But he went too far. He locked the Council into the *Römer*, the ancient city hall, for four days and forced them to resign. He drove the Jews from the city, after plundering their houses while they spent a night trembling with fear in their graveyard. Fettmilch himself and his wife and children were among the mob. They came with wagons and carts and filled them with chickens, geese, spits, dishes, and iron chests in which they expected to find money. Of many a Christian housewife it was said later, "She furnished her room well with pewter from the *Judengasse*."

But lives were spared. In the morning thirteen hundred and eighty Jews were driven like cattle through the city gates, and taken down the river.

Fettmilch went still further. He terrified respectable citizens, even his own friends and supporters. The emperor put him under a ban. He barricaded himself within his house and threatened to shoot everyone who came near. But he was taken prisoner at last and in 1616 on the *Rossmarkt*, a large open place used for many purposes, he and six comrades were executed and their heads stuck up on the bridge tower as a ghastly warning to all upstarts.

When the uprising had been put down, the emperor commanded that the Jews be brought back, their houses repaired, the spoils returned, and the people unmolested. With drum and fife and flying banners, the cavalry rode out to bring in the outcasts. On the three gates were posted promises of the emperor's protection. The gates were opened. After long suffering, the Jews returned to their Ghetto in peace and security, in bliss and joy. The citizens no longer dared treat them like chattel. They were given the right of permanent abode in the *Judengasse*. They felt safe. The Ghetto, at least, was theirs.

But the crowds grew. Fires in the *Judengasse* were frequent. Three times in the eighteenth cen-

tury flames laid waste the houses of the Jews while the homeless families took refuge in the graveyard, with whatever of their possessions they could save piled up in confusion about them. And always the Ghetto was rebuilt, a little wider and longer, but still the forced abode of a people outcast and deprived of freedom.

Some of the houses were surprisingly luxurious inside. In one rich house were found valuable works of art, chandeliers of glass and brass, tapestries, plush chairs, gold frames, large sideboards and cupboards, mirrors, brocade covers and curtains, silk dresses with silver lace, gold and silver ornaments, bracelets, necklaces, jewels, and seven sorts of wine!

But the sanitary conditions of the *Judengasse* were unbelievable. Travelers at the end of the eighteenth century were shocked. They described the Ghetto thus: "Behind a thirty-foot high old black wall rise the gable roofs of the eight or ten foot wide houses with a forest of chimneys. Bedclothes hang out of the upper windows. Window panes are broken by the stones of mischievous boys. It looks like a prison. Three thousand people are shut up within these walls. Nothing green is to be seen. The children have no courts, no gardens, where they can play. Probably in all Germany there is no place where the protected Jews have so little fresh air." They were not allowed to walk in the parks outside the city walls. The gates of the *Judengasse* were locked at sundown.

But ideas of liberty, equality, fraternity, were seeping into the Ghetto. A new generation awoke to the fact that elsewhere in Germany the Jews were culturally far advanced. In Königsberg they were among the most enthusiastic disciples of Kant. In Berlin Jews and Christians of the highest classes mingled socially, still an unheard-of situation in Frankfurt, where their only relationship was one of business or of health. (Jewish doctors were held in great esteem.) The younger Jews were clamoring for an education, for liberal schools, for a knowledge of the German language, which they considered the door to culture. The older Jews opposed all their efforts, fearing it would mean death to Judaism.

During the French siege of 1796, fire destroyed one hundred and forty houses in the *Judengasse* and while the city delayed re-building, the Jews lived among the Christians, restrictions were lessened, a school was founded. But still plans were made for a new Ghetto.

The Jews petitioned the emperor for freedom. "The culture and morals of the Jews," they wrote to him, "their entire future depends upon free interchange of ideas and association with the Christian population."

It was the French who brought release. In 1811 Karl von Dalberg, Napoleon's governor in Frankfurt, issued an emancipation edict granting the right of citizenship to the Jews and allowing them to live and to buy property in any part of the city they desired. But their trials were not yet at an end. Reaction followed the French régime and it was years before the authorities of Frankfurt recognized Dalberg's edict as binding.

However, there was no stemming the tide. The days of the Ghetto were past. The Jews were scattered throughout the city. The congregation was divided. Schools and synagogues were founded with liberal and rational tendencies, but strict and orthodox Judaism is still upheld in many synagogues in Frankfurt.

Mayer Amschel Rothschild, founder of the famous banking house, built a palatial villa in the newest and most desirable residential section, but it is said that his mother, like many older Jews, refused to leave the *Judengasse*. Most of the houses were torn down. The name of the street was changed. But the Rothschild house is still standing and is one of the show places of the city.

Through the nineteenth century the Jews in Frankfurt played an important role in art, music, charity, journalism. Generosity, keenness of mind and spirit, enthusiasm, intellectualism of every color, are among their pronounced characteristics. Hospitals, museums, libraries, parks, the university, publishing houses, memorials, are vivid proofs of

their share in the life of Frankfurt. The record of their achievements fill many volumes in the municipal library.

Jews and Christians in all these centuries have inter-married. It is difficult to insist upon "pure" German blood as a requirement for citizenship. Even the National Socialists hesitate to go further back than the grandparents to determine whether or not a man is a Jew.

Nor can one quite conceive of unentangling the Jewish and non-Jewish cultural elements in a city like Frankfurt on the Main. The Jews have left their imprints everywhere. It is not so simple as in the days of Fettmilch, when Jewish property and Jewish culture were crowded together in one narrow walled-in street and the people could be driven like cattle through the city gates, set upon a ship, and sent sailing down the Main. The grandiloquent pre-election program of the National Socialists has of necessity been modified.

But if all the Jews are really banished or removed from official positions and intellectual and financial leadership, will their money and their minds, their music and their philanthropy, now as then, be found so desperately needed that they will be welcomed back with drum and fife and flying banners?

Note: Historical facts in this sketch are taken from Kracauer's *Geschichte der Juden in Frankfurt am Main*. (1925)

Historical Periodicals in the College Libraries of Pennsylvania

By PROFESSOR PAUL W. GATES
Bucknell University

In transferring one's activities from a great university to a small college one has to make many adjustments, none of which is more difficult, perhaps, than that of fitting one's work to the existing library equipment. No longer is it possible to rely on the vast resources of a great research institution; works of major significance are not available, and, worst of all, the current periodicals which best enable one to keep up in his particular field, are not to be had. In making recommendations to the library for the expenditure of the meager funds allotted to his department, the young teacher is torn between the desire to order subscriptions to the scholarly periodicals which will be of incalculable assistance to him, but whose use in the small college will be strictly limited, and the desire to purchase

the necessary monographs for the student's collateral reading.

The writer was assisted in making this transition from the large to the small institution by a generous administration and a kind and helpful librarian who allowed him to spend a substantial sum of money for books and also to extend the list of historical periodicals from a paltry five to a generous thirteen. In making this extension a number of problems arose in connection with the selection of the periodicals. To gain assistance in the solution of these problems a survey was undertaken, with the aid of a graduate student,¹ of the circulation of historical periodicals among the colleges of Pennsylvania. A questionnaire was sent to the librarians of every college and university library in the State

	<i>Agricultural History</i>	<i>Am. Cath. Hist. Rec.</i>	<i>Am. Antiquarian</i>	<i>Am. Hist. Review</i>	<i>Canadian Hist. Review</i>	<i>Catholic Hist. Review</i>	<i>English Hist. Review</i>	<i>Friends Hist. Soc. Journal</i>	<i>Hispanic Am. Hist. Review</i>	<i>Historical Outlook</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>Ill. State Hist. Soc. J.</i>	<i>J. of Modern History</i>	<i>J. of Negro History</i>	<i>Mass. Hist. Soc. Proceedings</i>	<i>Michigan History Magazine</i>	<i>Minnesota History</i>	<i>Miss. Valley Hist. Review</i>	<i>Missouri Hist. Review</i>	<i>New England Quarterly</i>	<i>N. Y. State Hist. Ass. Q. J.</i>	<i>N. Dakota Hist. Quarterly</i>	<i>Pacific Hist. Review</i>	<i>Penn. Mag. of Hist. & Biography</i>	<i>Southwestern Hist. Q.</i>	<i>Speculum</i>	<i>Tyler's Q. Hist. & Gen. Mag.</i>	<i>Va. Mag. of Hist. & Biog.</i>	<i>Western Penn. Hist. Mag.</i>	<i>Wm. & Mary College Hist. Mag.</i>	<i>Total</i>	
Albright																															0	
Alleghany			x				x			x			x				x		x													6
Beaver										x																						1
Bloomsburg STC										x																						1
Bryn Mawr							x	x			x	x	x					x														7
Bucknell	x		x	x			x		x	x			x				x	x		x			x	x						x		13
Cedar Crest																																0
Dickinson							x		x	x			x					x														7
Drexel				x																												1
Duquesne																																0
Franklin & Marshall				x							x		x											x							x	6
Geneva											x		x																			2
Gettysburg				x						x																						2
Grove City				x							x																					2
Haverford				x			x	x		x			x	x							x			x		x	x		x	x		12
Indiana STC				x					x	x																					x	5
Juniata				x																												2
Lafayette				x			x		x	x			x					x		x												8
Lebanon Valley				x			x			x																						3
Lehigh				x			x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x						19
Lock Haven STC				x							x																					2
Mansfield STC				x																												2
Millersville STC										x																						2
Moravian				x																												2
Mount St. Joseph		x					x				x																					3
Muhlenberg				x			x																									3
Penn. Coll. f. Women				x																												1
Penn. State	x			x	x		x		x	x		x	x	x			x		x									x	x	x	x	16
Univ. of Penn.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	29
Univ. of Pitt.				x			x			x	x																					8
St. Thomas			x	x			x	x			x																					6
Seton Hill			x	x			x	x			x																					5
Shippensburg STC				x							x																					4
Susquehanna											x																					2
Swarthmore				x			x	x			x	x		x	x			x		x												10
Temple				x			x				x																					5
Thiel				x							x																					2
Ursinus				x																												2
Villanova		x					x																									2
Wash. & Jeff.				x				x					x																			5
Waynesburg																																1
West Chester STC																																3
Wilson			x	x			x				x				x																	7
Totals	3	5	2	31	3	8	17	2	8	28	6	4	19	5	3	3	3	11	2	6	2	2	4	21	2	4	3	2	8	4		

and, most remarkable, a generous response was received.

The above chart is the result of this questionnaire. There are a number of points which should be mentioned concerning it. In the first place the list does not purport to give all the periodicals to which these libraries subscribe, although it includes those most commonly taken. The emphasis, obviously, is upon American historical periodicals, although by no means all of these, nor even all the best ones, are included. The writer attempted to make the list representative by choosing the more important sectional periodicals, some of the religious and racial quarterlies, typical state maga-

zines and those reviews dealing with the main divisions of history. The reader is especially warned that the list should not be considered as an accurate index of the relative strength of the various libraries. There has been no desire to make invidious comparisons and the information is really too scanty to warrant any such conclusions. The table is presented in the hope that it will be of some assistance to the librarian, to the college teacher, and perhaps to the waning subscription lists of the periodicals.

¹ The writer is obligated to Miss Thelma Corman for her assistance in preparing this table.

Silver Inflation and the Senate in 1933

A Return of the Inflation Sentiment of the Eighteen Seventies, the Eighteen Eighties and the Eighteen Nineties

By JEANNETTE P. NICHOLS, Ph.D., Philadelphia

The depression ills of 1933 caused a steady accumulation of inflation sentiment in the United States, with as many schemes for securing inflation as there were doctors who prescribed it. Monetary pills for the sick body politic appeal by their simplicity—it is so much easier to attribute distress simply to a lack of funds, than to ferret out the intricate, deep-seated, social causes of that lack. Hence the political usefulness of the inflation battle-cry, which has rung through every land periodically, ever since the dawn of history. Whether or not the currency would be expanded in the United States depended on many factors, one of which was the alignment of votes in the Senate. There, during the first session of the seventy-third Congress, inflation steadily gained in strength and three dates stood out significantly in respect to silver.

Eastern press commentators were slow to realize the strengthening of the cheap money sentiment. The amassing of thirty-three votes on April 17 for the coinage of silver appeared to them surprising. Yet those thirty-three grew to forty-one by April 26, and they in turn by April 28 to fifty-three. Twelve hectic, astounding days, with ninety-one senators holding themselves within call most of the time. This movement progressed partly by the aid of those who wished to kill it. That is the irony of Fate, working through political instruments.

If Bryan's ghost stalked through the Senate chamber on the afternoon of Monday, April 17, it heard men speaking an ancient and familiar tongue. There were Senators Wheeler of Montana, King of Utah, and Pittman of Nevada, all facing re-election in 1934, all talking about the remonetization of silver at 16 to 1. They said that they found the sentiment for it "overwhelming." Contributing somewhat to their argument was Mr. Norris (who, however, inclined more toward paper money and was not electioneering) of the ghost's old home bailiwick of Nebraska, an agricultural, rather than a silver-producing state. Most of the other principal speakers hailed from silver states; and they led a van of men from the West and South who voted that day for remonetization.

All fourteen senators from the seven silver states of Utah, Idaho, Montana, Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, and New Mexico (except Borah, Bratton,

and Hayden) voted "aye." With them were Democrats and Republicans; but, with the exception of Couzens of Michigan, they were joined by no one from any state east of Wisconsin or north of North Carolina and Kentucky. An interesting picture in terms of economic geography—a picture adapted to enlargement.¹

The orators of the day, looking upon the countrywide misery, honestly desirous to alleviate it, although not always well grounded in monetary history, prescribed Bryan's own nostrum. Again, as in an earlier day, the demonetization of silver was limned forth as a most glaring evil. To that lonely cause a host of ill effects readily were attributed. It was no time to stress the contributions made to hard times by maldistribution, over-production, under-consumption, speculation, or distrust. It was a time to emphasize the need for trade with silver-absorbing countries, such as China and India, which import but do not export that metal.

But the wraith must have noticed that the orators of 1933 concerned themselves most repeatedly with the sad state of the export trade in agricultural products. From the hard-pressed farmer they expected a quick response. Men from silver-producing states scarce ventured openly to present their urgency as a naked demand for a special subsidy for mountain interests. They did not stress the fact that silver had been at an all-time New York low of 24 $\frac{1}{4}$ c December 29, 1932, and had risen only to 28 $\frac{7}{8}$ c since. It was the farmer above ground, rather than the owner of mines in the bowels of the earth, for whom they pleaded.²

In turn, senators from agricultural states broadened the base of their appeal, from farmers of the mid-continent to senators of the industrial states. They stressed the losses of the exporter of manufactured goods, since he also must be paid in dear American dollars rather than in cheap British pounds or Japanese yen; foreign purchasers were choosing to buy elsewhere—from firms operating in the lower priced industrial nations. Worse still, at home, the goods of countries whose currencies had fallen from the gold pedestal were surmounting the highest tariff wall which American ingenuity ever had erected. Of all this, much was said. It was music in the ears of the vindicated ghost, hearing again

of the desperate plight of debtors, who again could not pay back in hard times money borrowed easily during a boom.

At the same time, the ghost of the Great Commoner noticed that the old gospel was vastly more "respectable" than it used to be. The Peerless Leader, in the days of his glory, had understood human emotions and their use so well that he had built up an inflation electorate of nearly six and one-half millions; they were taken chiefly from the ranks of silver producers, some unemployed workmen, debtors, and agriculturalists who were also debtors. As Bryan preached the doctrine, there was much of class warfare in it; and consequently there was one class (in addition to the well-to-do), which he scarcely succeeded in attracting; that was the naturally conservative, middle class of the industrial areas. But in 1933 many from it joined the cheap money group. They were confirmed in their inflation sentiments partly through a certain ineptitude among anti-inflationists, and greatly to the astonishment of the latter. The displacement of the gold standard god by inflation propaganda was extremely helpful to silver.

Among the people formerly supposed to desire what was termed "sound money" are the big bankers, the gentlemen who control the policies of the great radio networks, and the conservative press. Curiously enough, from each of these groups came a definite propulsion toward inflation, felt because of their influence upon the hundreds of thousands of Main Street conservatives who make up the "one-hundred-per-cent-Americans."

The contribution of Wall Street to inflation sentiment was partly one of disillusionment. The "average citizen" might not have been shaken from his acquiescence in the old shibboleth of the gold standard if the doors of the factories, retail businesses, and small banks had been the only ones to close. The terrific shock to him was the closing of the doors of large banks, the arrest of prominent bankers, and the hasty departure and continued absence from their country of outstanding business leaders.

In so far as Harriman, Insull, Mitchell, and Wiggin were discredited in the eyes of the nation, Wall Street lost sanctity. One of the wealthiest men in the United States found it in his heart to rise in the Senate and deride the "four M's," Morgan, Mellon, Mills, and Meyer, explaining that what the people want now is to choose their own autocrat, rather than starve under self-chosen autocrats. Apparently the revered doctrine of American individualism, as applied to the worship of the clever man gifted in wealth-gathering, was a lost article of faith, although the United States Chamber of Commerce as late as November 18 doubted it. Citizens who never did it before, talked

of wealth decentralization, of the transfer of this world's goods from the few who have to the many who have not. They joined the more radical classes in applause for the orator who talked of a sound, just, fair, and honest dollar which, through inflation, must displace the high, bloated, diseased, and dropsical dollar. They asked for cheap money but, fearful of a radical label, stipulated that it must be obtained through "controlled" inflation.³

Possibly unaware of the inflamed state of much of the public mind toward financiers, banking experts during the excitement renewed attempts to obtain branch banking from Congress. But the man and woman of the rural and small town areas had little faith in banking leadership; they could not believe that the failure of small-town banks might be due somewhat to local limitations. Nor could they sense the desperate need for a better ordered system throughout the nation. They preferred, when they could, to trust their neighbor; they distrusted the motives of those who urged centralized control.

Powerful industrial interests, not particularly concerned in the silver futures market or in silver production, also helped silver by fostering inflation. The most notable of these groups was the famous "Committee for the Nation," composed of various manufacturing and dairy executives under the leadership of F. A. Vanderlip. They distinguished themselves by frankly admitting that vast sums had been irretrievably lost, and outlined a program for preventing inflation by restoring the price level. To read their recommendations, printed in the *New York Herald Tribune* of March 6, 1933, is to read a prospectus of many devices adopted by the President during the following six months. But those devices were necessarily so drastic as to radiate respectability to more historic inflation, such as greenbacks and bimetallism.⁴

Further responsibility for the inflation demand could be laid at the doors of the radio. The inflationist of 1933, whatever his economic class, was more "informed" than in earlier depressions. He had been talked at over the radio, night and day, upon economic subjects, listening to what he would never bother to read about. In many cases the radio economics was of an elementary, if not a distorted, sort, administered in doses mixed according to the prejudices and objects of the speakers; but radio speeches strike listeners directly with the persuasive power of a living voice. They made many listeners feel that they were becoming "informed" on this abstruse and difficult subject.

The radio might even have elected Bryan. Did not a microphone orator in 1932 elect to the Senate a candidate admitted to have had, otherwise, not a ghost of a chance? Much more important, in 1933,

was the influence of a certain popular, Sunday, radio hour. A powerful, convincing voice, bound up with a personality having by profession a vital appeal to a very large class of persons, spoke into a microphone at Detroit, hammering away upon the public mind in favor of inflation. November 5 Father Coughlin assured his listeners, "Sooner than you suspect, silver will be remonetized."⁵

Next, we come to the inflation contribution of the conservative press, on which Fate played a scurvy trick. Literary critics scarcely classify the *Saturday Evening Post* as an inflammatory sheet; charges of radicalism preferably have been aimed at less successful and less popular weeklies. But times were hard for advertisers and their most popular medium shrank perforce from its pre-depression affluence of more than two hundred pages to less than one hundred.

In these restricted columns appeared, April 15, 1933, a detailed statement of disadvantages suffered by manufacturers in gold standard countries who must compete in world trade with those producing goods in countries having depreciated currencies. When the suffering nation is thoroughly demonstrated to be the United States, and the less unfortunate one to be England, the political usefulness of the article becomes such as would delight Senator Lodge himself!

It was forty years since Cameron, Chandler, Lodge, and Reed voiced the desire to marry silver to protection; but in the 1933 arguments many of theirs were repeated, and awakened response in the congressional breast, especially when they concerned such industries as steel and textiles, to mention but two badly hit by depreciation-competition.⁶

The track to subsidy for industries has been well beaten through long years by efficient lobbyists. These know all the paths and by-ways laid out in the congressional mind by American political processes. It is natural to find excerpts from their press inserted in the *Congressional Record* during currency debate; and such excerpts show that even on the Atlantic seaboard "controlled" inflation had its advocates.

Oddly enough, in writing that cleverly illustrated article, "The Economic Drive Against America," Mr. Garet Garrett took pains to state that what he was advocating was most decidedly *not* an abandonment of the gold standard, but compensating surtaxes for exchange variations, which would debar imports under an unreasonably depreciated value. But there was nothing to prevent a silverite from making a present of a copy of the *Post* to each of his fellow senators, with useful deductions therefrom as to the respectability, the pure, unadulterated, one-hundred-per-cent-American quality of inflation through silver remonetization.

Since the currency issue is peculiarly adapted to political exigencies, any chance instrument like the Garrett article, has vastly more influence than a mountain of careful arguments deduced by specialists in economics. This must be so, because importunate constituents effectually deprive most Senators of opportunity and taste for study. Naturally, an anti-professorial set of mind is built up in those cases where the defense mechanism demands it. Incidentally it was displayed not less than four times upon the occasion of April 17's debate, when also Mr. Garrett was cited half a dozen times. Politically speaking, those economists who had been advocating inflation (whether by silver, paper, or other methods) owe Mr. Garrett and the *Post* a debt of gratitude.

Tricky Fate continued, after Wheeler's amendment was defeated, to make great sport of sober people's apparent intentions. Through the ensuing fortnight conservative political influence, opposing the steady progress of the inflationists, helped them considerably.

The same sentiment which pressed upon the legislative branch of the government, bore down upon the Executive, demanding inflation through silver remonetization, paper money, lessening the gold content of the dollar, and other means. The silver bills introduced into this Congress, cavorted all the way from brief bimetallic measures to intricate schemes of money based on gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, and iron. Correspondents of the White House can have been no less fertile in suggestion. Inflation had a seat at the Cabinet table and its representatives among the "Little Cabinet." There was no small significance in the fact that the Secretary of Agriculture hailed from Iowa—the hotbed of agricultural unrest—and that Professor G. F. Warren was not against some use of silver in the monetary reserves. Watchers from the western end of Pennsylvania Avenue scarcely could have been surprised, therefore, when the silver vote on the Hill, where on January 24 it had stood at 18 to 56, by April 17 boasted totals of 33 to 43.⁷

Hill and White House alike sensed in the inflation issue a challenge to leadership. Impatient voters, weary of timidity in the Hoover administration, wildly acclaimed leadership in that of Roosevelt. Of Congress they had not been saying the fairest things, and their idea of leadership seemed to be one man, rather than five hundred and thirty-one. This opinion senators and representatives had encouraged by admitting inability to agree, by delegating their powers and shifting their responsibilities. Conservative members, privately and publicly, were asserting that Congress was potentially more radical than the Executive. Further, there was a general demand on all sides for action

—quick action—without too much regard for where it led.

Nevertheless, although repeated experience at the polls tends to foster certain types of caution, there were senators who remained unafraid. They knew that the Senate, like the House, was held in contempt among many people who do not stop to consider the basic principle of representative government. But they also knew that the fault in the last analysis lies close to the door of the electorate; and they made it clear that willingness to act and desire to lead were not all concentrated at the other end of the Avenue. At least six chose each his inflation star, to which he hitched his political wagon.

To the challenge of the thirty-three silver votes, the President responded quickly. He had made known his opposition to Wheeler's mandatory 16 to 1 proposition; but within about forty-eight hours after it mustered its increased following, he in effect declared the United States off the gold standard, announced that the dollar would be left to find its own level, and sponsored a compromise, permissive proposition (called the "Thomas" amendment), designed to ride through Congress on the skirts of the farm relief bill. That proposition carried something to mollify each one of the domestic inflation leaders, silver men, gold reduction men, paper men, all. It gave the President permission to act in each field if in his judgment advisable.⁸

His action accomplished two objectives. It reasserted his leadership at home and strengthened his bargaining power abroad.

He reduced the ranks of the opposition in the Senate to the anti-inflationists, and even they must note that this compromise had more of "nay" than of "must." He left room for the widest possible divergence of opinion; conservatives could believe he really aimed to restore the gold standard among the chief nations as soon as political conditions permitted, and had endorsed the Thomas amendment only to prevent Congress from getting out of hand. Silver men could claim he aimed to remonetize silver throughout the world, or at least increase its use. Paper men could claim he planned an issue of greenbacks. Before night fell on this *coup d'état*, Mr. J. P. Morgan of New York City and Mr. Key Pittman of Tonopah, Nevada, were both praising the action of the Executive—for totally different reasons.

As for the international bearing of the President's action, he evidently knew something of how the United States position at the conference table in 1878, 1881, and 1892 was made ludicrous because she possessed no bargaining power. When the United States then begged an accord on silver, she faced an England bound tightly to the gold

standard and there was no common ground on which to stand. Worse, there always loomed back of any action by American delegates, the question of a lack of support in Congress. But in April, 1933, Robinson, Connally, and Pittman were urging the Senate, "We must not send our Government into any conference economically disarmed."

No sooner had the President sponsored the Thomas amendment than anti-inflationists inadvertently made sure of its adoption. The same presses which printed the full text of the amendment told the world that Senator Reed of Pennsylvania hoped to delay action until Congress had time to hear from the country. A sound legislative principle—which had worked to pass the economy bill. Obviously, the senator believed majority opinion repudiated inflation. But with each passing hour the opposite became more evident. From Middle West, South, West, and even East, the mails and wires disgorged a response which averaged contrary to Reed's expectations. His move fostered cheap money sentiment.

Fate jeered at the conservatives. Delay gave time for state legislatures to adopt inflation memorials, ironically based on the Garrett article. Delay gave new boldness to the advocates of a redistribution of wealth—some \$200,000,000,000 were to change hands through this amendment. Delay gave time for arrival of slow letters, which were sent, the recipients said, because the poor could not afford telegrams for voicing their quick approval. More and more, personalities were indulged in; and the presence in Washington of ex-Secretary of the Treasury Mills, come to defeat the amendment, helped to increase its popularity.

The profiteers in this situation were the silver senators. Emboldened by the rage for cheap money, they worked openly to increase the market price of their home product. Many of their bills aimed to fix a silver price double that existing. They secured endorsement for an amendment empowering the President to provide for unlimited coinage, not at 16 to 1 but at a ratio between gold and silver to be determined by him. Thirteen Democrats who had voted against mandatory 16 to 1 supported this modified Wheeler proposal April 16, and it was adopted, 41-26. As four of the thirteen hailed from Illinois, Indiana, Connecticut, and New Hampshire, it was clear that silver inflation was moving eastward.

Two days later the silver senators secured an increase, from \$100,000,000 to \$200,000,000 in the amount of silver which the United States could take from debtor nations to relieve the silver market. This drew two Republicans not formerly voting with the silver men, from Michigan and Connecticut, and tallied at 53-32. In the silver votes of

April 17 to April 28 was a lesson in political fin-
esse:⁹

April 17 silver defeated	33-43
April 26 silver victorious	41-26
April 28 silver victorious	53-32

However, while this was going on, an element of terror was creeping into the situation. Eastern as well as western senators queried, "Cannot unalleviated distress upset established government?" "Would Congress get out of hand?" conservatives asked. "Did the 'Thomas' amendment provide inflation enough?" westerners wondered. April 27 the radio news reporters had told a listening world that desperate farmers of Iowa were fighting the loss of their homes—armed with mud, sticks, ridicule, and a rope, used to frighten (but not to kill, be it noted) a judge in foreclosure proceedings. The shock was tremendous.

The next day martial law was declared in Iowa. In Washington the conservative Senator Dickinson from that state joined with seven more Republicans to help adopt the "Thomas" amendment. The vote this time was 64-21! On the same Friday they passed, 64-20, the farm relief bill with the "Thomas" amendment attached. About this vote there were two very striking things. Among the opposing twenty votes (not counting the pairs) were but three from west of the Mississippi, and two of these hailed from "Silver Dick" Bland's old state of Missouri. The only other states presenting a united front in opposition were one of the Middle West, Ohio, and the five eastern seaboard states of Delaware, Maine, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Vermont.¹⁰

Quickly Wheeler demonstrated that Ohio was not so conservative after all. The next Wednesday, May 3, he submitted a Senate resolution expressing it as the opinion of that body that the delegates to the International Economic Conference should "work unceasingly for an international agreement to remonetize silver" at 16 to 1 or better. The newly elected and enthusiastic inflationist senator from Idaho, Mr. Pope, had the pleasure of occupying the chair of the presiding officer when Wheeler introduced his resolution. It was laid on the table five days and then agreed to, without further discussion or objection. With the resolution Wheeler submitted a statement favoring silver remonetization (ratio not ventured), signed by 96 Representatives; 19 of them came from districts east of the Mississippi, 8 from Ohio, 5 from Michigan, 3 from Illinois, 2 from Indiana, and 1 from Pennsylvania.

In this move Wheeler worked as a realist, within the bounds of the attainable. The House signatures were gathered without stipulating a ratio, which would have cut the list. Senate agreement was asked

(without a record vote) to a Senate resolution, which operates merely as an expression of opinion, not to a joint resolution, which has the force of law.¹¹

Thenceforward the silver men were heartened by continual undermining of the position of gold. At the behest of Roosevelt, Congress passed a joint resolution with retroactive features for repeal of the gold payment clause in all obligations. Great Britain and lesser nations made war debt payments in silver. Preparatory to the Economic Conference, Senator Pittman grew increasingly optimistic, as it became clear that no general monetary agreement could precede the conference. He met gentlemen from Mexico when they came to see the President—most important because, while nearly 42% of the world's silver is produced in Mexico, United States interests control three-fourths of that production and practically all of the refining of it. He announced, May 19, a preliminary agreement on a 6-point silver program to be ratified at London.¹²

In that city he had a busy and happy experience. The conference strengthened the silver cause in so far as it failed to agree on world gold stabilization. Pittman doubtless appreciated tremendously Roosevelt's refusal to peg the dollar; and while the conference dragged out its ineffectual existence he persuaded the delegates from countries holding large stocks of silver and from producing countries to sign an agreement associated with his name.

In it he posited an ultimate return to the gold standard, thereby furnishing Senator Wheeler an easy point of attack at home, while Pittman garnered his signatures abroad. Since the draft agenda had dismissed international bimetallism as impractical, he was in no position to urge it. India, China, and Spain, holding large silver stocks, agreed, July 22, not to sell more than 140,000,000 ounces through the next four years; Australia, Canada, the United States, Mexico, and Peru agreed to sell none and to withdraw from market 35,000,000 ounces yearly. This was in line with the draft agenda which suggested restriction of sales. Silver "withdrawn" was to be used for currency or otherwise retained from sale.

A supplementary agreement of July 26 apportioned the producers' withdrawals in such manner that the United States would withdraw about 70% of the yearly amount. How much of this might appear as currency was left for speculation. On this date the price of spot silver in New York was 36¾¢.¹³

From August 10, when Pittman returned to the United States, until November 24, the date of this writing, the silver pot boiled merrily. Each of the many expressions of discontent over the working

of the N.R.A., the A.A.A., the P.W.A. and all of the other heroic measures, added its quota to the general unsettlement. Since unsettlement is essential to their progress, the silver and greenback groups had reason to be grateful to Milo Reno and Albert H. Wiggin, to the coal strikes and the national Chamber of Commerce, to friends and enemies of the Administration, who so impatiently demanded an immediate cure for a long-standing disease. A loyal silverite must nightly pray that commodity prices shall not rise before they "do something for silver."

October was filled with the noise of fighting. Although the American Legion and A. F. of L. came out (October 4 and October 11) for "sound money" and against "unregulated inflation," inflation grew apace. October 21 Roosevelt announced that the government was about to buy domestic gold; October 29, that it would purchase foreign gold. The rumored order of November 17 for restricting the flight of capital seemed to exhaust the possibilities of exchange manipulation as a price-raising agent. Did this open the way for silver?¹⁴

In the trans-Mississippi West meanwhile raged a battle royal. The Administration brought out the Commodity Credit Corporation and other plans for loans on cattle, wheat, and corn. If these succeeded, farm strikes would wane and inflation with them. If coördination of the N.R.A. and A.A.A. achieved its object, the commodity dollar, greenback, and silver men might fail in theirs. Senator Wheeler was determined not to fail. He spent those weeks addressing westerners over the radio and at many a Chamber of Commerce meeting. He must have been gratified at his reception out West but better was in store in the East. He found awaiting him a letter from an official of the Chamber of Commerce of Philadelphia, possibly the most conservative city in the United States, urging him to address its members; he could name his own date.¹⁵

Meanwhile, inflation schemes hatched all over the country, and among the chicks was one lusty fellow of New York parentage but a hybrid strain, showing how, under the stress of trouble, financiers may stray. This bird was a dollar with a heart of gold, surrounded by silver. The metals were either to be actually minted in those relative positions or jointly used to back paper. This oddity proved again that money based on silver is less unpalatable to creditor tastes than unbacked paper. Senator Wheeler knew this.¹⁶

Various senators tried to persuade Roosevelt to put into effect their pet plans. Upon India's ratification of the Pittman agreement (Nov. 21) Pittman announced the United States was "obligated" to ratify, as the agreement was prepared with Roosevelt's approval. Outside of the silver group,

inflation senators getting much publicity included Thomas of Oklahoma, Harrison of Mississippi, and Smith of South Carolina. As the President delayed specific endorsement, some senators uttered threats—that if he did not inflate before Congress met, Congress would repeal his powers and compel inflation. However, apportionment of the political spoils of an inflation victory might require time.

Out of the clash of conflict what will come? Silver men feel that somewhere in their territory lies the middle ground: the South with its paper and the East with its gold must lay down their arms before the West with its silver. They did it in 1878 and they may do it again. However, silver has very little political importance in any other nation today. Mr. Roosevelt is a realist, a man of much resource and great popularity. He may seek to divert inflation along new paths—away from Treasury vaults crammed with bullion. But of course he knows that a plan to succeed must appeal to national self interest and emotions. It must secure a majority vote in Congress.

¹⁴ C.R. 73C-1S p. 1842; Barkley of Kentucky was listed in the daily C.R. as not voting and in the bound edition as both not voting and voting "nay." Therefore he is here uncounted.

¹⁵ *New York Herald Tribune*, August 13, 1933.

¹⁶ For U.S.C. of C. resolutions of November 18, see *New York Times*, November 19, 20, 1933.

¹⁷ See also *New York Times*, April 6, 1933. February 26 the Committee's famous report was printed; it was released two days before Roosevelt was inaugurated.

¹⁸ *Washington Post*, November 6, 1933. The Coughlin broadcasts circulate widely in pamphlet form and of course bear the bishop's imprimatur; also they have been published as *Father Coughlin's Radio Sermons, 1930-1931* (Baltimore) and *Father Coughlin's Radio Discourses, 1931-1932* (Royal Oak, Michigan).

¹⁹ The Cameron, Chandler, Lodge, and Reed movement was part of the pre-election oratory in 1894.

²⁰ More than two dozen silver bills went into this session's hopper. The terminology of many might be obscure, but their object was plain—steady maintenance of the price of silver bullion at a ratio to gold of 16 to 1. Professor Warren wrote a paper on Stabilization of Value for the "Committee for the Nation"; see *New York Herald Tribune*, November 19, 1933; January 24, vote, C.R. 72C-2S p. 2393.

²¹ The executive order announcing embargo on gold exports was officially issued April 20; *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, May, p. 266; *New York Times*, April 20, 1933.

²² C.R. April 26, 28, pp. 2410, 2550.

²³ C.R. April 28, pp. 2551-2, 2562; in Ohio and three others, "sound money" sentiment had appeared significantly during the latter days of Hoover's campaign, affecting vote totals.

²⁴ C.R. May 3, 8, pp. 2775-6, 2967, S. Res. 67.

²⁵ H.J. Res. 192, C.R. May 29, June 3, pp. 4605-7, 5027; debt payments announced in *New York Times* June 16; in the U. S. only 23% of the world's silver is mined, but U. S. interests control nearly 66% of the world's mine production and more than 73% of the refining, W. P. Rawles, *Nationality of Commercial Control* (New York, 1933), pp. 32-34.

²⁶ *New York Times*, July 22, 27; official version of agreement in Department of State Bulletin 47, August 31; since January the silver price in dollars had improved more than that of wholesale commodities, but in terms of gold, the silver producers were worse off in July than in April, H. M. Bratter in *New York Herald Tribune*, August 13, 26; the same writer analyzed the agreement in *Should We Turn to Silver?* (Chicago, 1933.)

²⁷ Thomas and Fletcher immediately approved the plan

for domestic purchases, Pittman the foreign, *New York Times*, October 22, 31; the first price for domestic purchases was set at \$31.36 October 25, *Ibid.*, October 26; some of the older anti-inflationists were no less active but much less vocal.

¹³ Striking aspects of key events of October are found in the large dailies of October 7, 12, 18, 22, 26, 27; Philadelphia

enjoyed a rousing inflation debate at the meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, November 22, *Philadelphia Inquirer*, November 23.

¹⁶ *New York Herald Tribune*, November 19; *Washington Star*, September 25; data concerning inflation agitators' participation in silver speculation during this period is elusive. Washington residents are reliably reported to be active.

Shall Formal History Be Dropped from the Curriculum? A Danger—and an Opportunity

By PROFESSOR HERBERT D. WINTERS

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In periods of transition when traditions, practices and principles are subject to searching criticism and revision, there is always a radical group whose method of reform is to destroy the old and substitute something new.

For the past four years a Committee on Secondary School Problems, sponsored by The Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York, has been engaged in a careful survey of present conditions in the high schools of the State. At their recent holiday meeting in Syracuse a tentative report was made. "History courses" it was suggested, "should devote more time to development of methods of study and 'historical mindedness,' and less to a repetition of detail. Political, social and economic development should receive more attention."

Such recommendations, although they are by no means "news" to progressive teachers of history, will be heartily endorsed by them as pointing the way to improvements which they have long desired. But the disquieting feature of the discussion which followed the report was that several speakers rejected the proposed reforms and insisted that formal instruction in history be dropped entirely, along with other "useless" subjects such as Latin, and much of the mathematics which is now taught.

These views, advocated in the educational meeting by responsible men, deserve careful attention. It would be easy to ascribe them to the general feeling of *malaise* caused in the schools by the arrival of the multitude, and the consequent tendency to lower the quality of the course of study and the standards of promotion in cases where the task of bringing the crowded classes up to a higher level appears to be too difficult. But a more serious reason must be considered, namely, the poor teaching of history in the schools at the present time. If principals were convinced that their pupils were

receiving from their course in history positive values which they receive from no other study, it is unlikely that they would go on record as wishing to drop it from their schools and replace it with studies which they consider to be more practical.

All candid criticism of present day courses and methods should be welcomed. But such criticism should lead, not to the simple and easy solution of dropping history from the curriculum, but to the far more difficult and, it must be maintained, far more satisfactory process of making a careful investigation of the reasons why the courses are unsatisfactory, and the teaching is poor. In the light of all the facts which such an investigation would reveal, the courses should be revised and the teaching improved.

Any one who is familiar with the situation which exists in many of the smaller high schools, and even in some of the larger ones, can point out in a general way some of the conditions which an investigation would definitely reveal.

1. There is, practically speaking, no course in history in the sense that there are courses in language or mathematics. To be sure, the University of the State of New York has provided such a course: History A, from the earliest times to the French Revolution; History B, Modern Europe; and History C, American History. The letters ABC which designate these courses have a suggestion of continuity and relationship. But too often such continuity and relationship do not exist. Very few pupils take all three courses, and the order in which they are taken appears to be a matter of slight importance. Seniors will be found in History A classes along with the first year pupils. Since only *one* unit is required for graduation, many pupils miss the European background and study American History only.

Such a condition makes any progress within the

subject impossible. The teacher of English is able to plan the development of her pupils over a period of four consecutive years. As a result of this planning the work done in the preceding courses becomes the foundation on which each new course is built. But the history teacher in high school who is denied the privilege of planning the work of the entire course must take her pupils on the "catch as catch can" principle. And as a consequence the teacher of freshman history in college finds that one of the chief burdens of his existence is the attempt to bring about some degree of unity in the groups which solemnly file into his class room at the beginning of each college year. They have come, not indeed because they are prepared to do college work in history, but because they offered for admission one unit, two units, or three units from the high school hodge-podge.

2. Since there is no course in history, so there is no department of history. A history teacher will be engaged as a matter of course, but in too many cases it will be on account of her apparent general availability, and not because of special preparation in her field. The school offers, three unrelated year courses in history; consequently these can be passed around to different teachers if it should appear to be convenient, while the history teacher can be fitted in almost anywhere. It may be discovered that only a few pupils have registered in history B. Since the Latin teacher has a free period she can handle that, while the history teacher who really did quite a little work in English in college can help out the harassed English teacher, who, of course, spent part of her time directing the school dramatics. History C will be given to the history teacher because the class consists of advanced pupils. As for History A—why, there is the coach. He must do some teaching, and he's a good fellow, and the children like him, and they are mostly first year pupils anyway and will not know the difference.

3. No adequate equipment is provided for the proper study of history. Year after year the School Board, with the O. K. of the principal, will appropriate money for varied and expensive apparatus desired by the fortunate teacher of science. Laboratory science and laboratory history are comparative newcomers in the school curriculum. The processes of the former are held to be indispensable in a machine age. Its discoveries, highly capitalized and hence highly profitable, produce a never-ending stream of the conveniences, comforts and luxuries, which a materialistic age demands. Laboratory science is therefore to be treated with respect. But laboratory exercises in the rich field of human experience, designed to help the pupils discover how and why the event took place, instead of merely learning that it did take place,—what a useless fad!

History is all in the book, and it is the business of the children to learn it, and not to raise questions about it. They are unruly enough as it is; and if they begin investigating and hunting for evidence and all that, there's no telling where it will all end. They will not leave a hero in the whole book. Young people with their heads full of frills are not wanted either in factory or in office. So don't ask us to waste the taxpayers' money buying models, pictures, sets of maps, source books, and all the other books they say they need. What is the textbook for, anyway? And, besides, the science laboratories take up so much room in the school building that there would be no place to use all those things if we bought them.

4. As a consequence of conditions already described, the study of history becomes not an expanding knowledge of historical processes and an increasing facility in their application, but a dull, monotonous series of textbook lessons, which the teacher assigns and the pupils are supposed to "master." A teacher does not need much special training for that kind of teaching. What she needs is drive, energy. If she only puts on the pressure, the children will get it in their heads all right, at least until the Regents Examinations are over.

History, taught in the way described, may well be classed among the "useless" subjects; and if there is no way of improving the situation, it might well be displaced in the high school curriculum by some subject which can be taught better. But before so radical a step is taken there should be a careful investigation of the entire situation in order to discover first, to what extent the schools themselves are responsible for the present unsatisfactory teaching of history; and second, what improvements can be made which will be within the means of the smaller schools, and which may well be made obligatory on the larger ones. If an organization like The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, which commands public confidence, should undertake an investigation of the schools of New York State in coöperation with the proper educational authorities within the State, the results obtained could be placed at the service of the Principals' Committee before they make their final report. By undertaking this task at a time when the situation is still undefined, the Association may be able to make a real contribution to the task of revising the history course, and of prescribing the conditions under which the study of history is to be carried on.

Not less but more history is demanded by the needs of the times. Among the tragic situations which have developed from the Great War not the least tragic is that of the United States in her new position as a world power. By the very fact that

she occupies this position; she will be called upon to make decisions which will affect the lives and happiness of people all over the world. Yet no past experiences, no traditions have prepared her citizens to make these decisions with sympathy and understanding. On the contrary American traditions from the very beginning have centered about the policy of isolation. Comparatively few have taken the trouble to read the Farewell Address, or to study the Monroe Doctrine, yet they blindly accept these documents as definite guides of action in all circumstances. They persist in meeting a world situation by continuing to follow an "American" system based upon barriers and aloofness.

Somehow they became involved in a great war which they had supposed was a purely European affair. They sent their men and contributed their dollars. The soldiers have come home; but where are the dollars? New problems such as League of Nations, World Court, Reparations, War Debts,

have come as the aftermath of that war to trouble their peace. And just when these problems seem to have been settled, they become all unsettled again. It is so puzzling to those who have grown up in the belief that America's interests are confined within her own borders; and that when she has looked after her protective tariff, her home market, and her foreign trade in the good old way, she has done enough.

It is to the department of history that the schools must look to give the children of America an understanding of foreign nations and an appreciation of international relationships. This training is vitally essential if they are wisely to direct the nation's affairs in the new age. History thus appears to be, not a useless subject, but one of the highest practical importance. The teaching of history is not merely a profession, it is a cause. Those who teach history in the schools deserve all possible encouragement and support.

A Lesson with World Maps

By DOUGLAS C. RIDGLEY

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The globe is the best representation of the earth to show the true form of the earth, the relative sizes of the continents, the true shapes of the continents, and the directions of the continents from each other on the curved surface of the earth. It is not possible, however, to show on the surface of a globe the many detailed items of information that we wish to represent. If this were attempted, the globes would be so large, so numerous, and so expensive to manufacture that we would soon discover that the task is impossible.

Maps, then, become the most convenient means of representing the earth's surface as a whole or in its many parts. In using maps, we should remember that each map represents a *curved* surface, not a flat surface like the map itself. Maps can be classified and stored on shelves or on rollers as readily as books and magazines are stored in a library.

World maps represent the entire earth's surface or nearly all of the earth's surface, including all of the inhabited continents and nearly all of the oceans. World maps are to be used and interpreted in relation to the globe. Unless we compare the continents and oceans as represented on the world maps with the continents and oceans as represented on the globe, we do not get an accurate idea of the shapes and relative sizes of the continents. Shapes and sizes of areas are correctly represented on the globe which has the same form as the real earth.

On world maps, shapes and sizes are somewhat distorted, sometimes greatly distorted, because it is impossible to represent with complete accuracy the shapes and sizes of continents which *really* exist only on a spherical surface, by making maps on a flat surface. Yet our flat maps in books, in atlases, and on wall maps are necessary for a study of geography and history.

Since our world maps cannot be exact representations of the real earth's surface, we need many times to compare world maps with the globe. Place before you a six-inch globe or a larger one, and the different kinds of world maps such as wall maps and those found in geography books and atlases.

1. On the globe, find the Equator. Study the lines for the parallels, and meridians. Note the simplicity of arrangement, their direction, and their frequency.

2. Among the world maps, find one drawn on Mercator's projection. The parallels are straight horizontal lines, all parallel to the Equator and to each other, and all are of the same length. On the Mercator projection, parallels are drawn farther apart as distance from the Equator increases. The meridians are shown as straight vertical lines, parallel to each other, and the same distance apart. On a map drawn on this projection directions are easily found, because directions are shown along a straight line on the map. For this reason Mer-

cator's projection is of special value to ships at sea. Shapes and sizes of land areas are not well shown on the Mercator map, because, as we move away from the Equator, the distance between parallels on the map increases, while on the globe and on the real earth distance between parallels is always the same; and meridians on the Mercator map are shown the same distance apart, while on the globe and on the real earth they are farthest apart at the Equator and converge, meeting at the poles. The Mercator world map exaggerates greatly the size of areas in high latitudes. On your Mercator map compare, as to size, Greenland and Australia; Greenland and South America. Make the same comparison on the globe. Turn to the statistical tables in the appendix of a geography and find the *real* areas in square miles for Greenland, Australia, and South America. The Mercator world map has been widely used, and pupils should learn how to interpret it in terms of the globe.

3. Among the world maps find one or two or three kinds on which the Equator and parallels are straight horizontal lines, parallel with each other, and on which the meridians are curved lines, the cur-

vature increasing away from the center of the map. These maps may be drawn on several map projections,—Van der Grinten's projection, homographic projection, homolosine projection, or other projections. Study these maps carefully, and compare Greenland, Australia, and South America with each other on the different world maps and on the globe. Study especially the shapes and sizes of regions near the margins of the world maps and compare them with the shapes and sizes of the same regions on the globe.

4. Remember that world maps are among the most useful symbols of the *real* earth's surface in the study of geography and history. Learn to use maps frequently as you read books or current news. Think of maps as representations of a *real* earth, 8,000 miles in diameter, 25,000 miles in circumference, the home of two billions of *real* people living on *real* plains, plateaus, and mountains wherever men can secure material for food, clothing, and shelter.

5. Study the maps of continents and of countries with full appreciation that these useful symbols represent *real* portions of a *real* earth.

The Processes of Learning History in Middle Childhood

By MARY G. KELTY, Chicago

IV. WHAT ARE THE PROCESSES IN THE LEARNING OF HISTORY? A REVIEW OF THE EVIDENCE

MOTIVE, INTEREST: WHY CHILDREN STUDY HISTORY

That the presence of a motivating stimulus is necessary to learning⁷⁶ is well understood. This motivating factor is often spoken of as "want" or "need." Many teachers have interpreted the need of a stimulus as implying that they must furnish children with exciting situations in order to arouse interest, or that they must provide unusual objects or activities. The modern dynamic psychology,⁷⁷ however, holds that "any activity for which an individual is specially fitted is likely to be per-

formed with spontaneity and zest and to *furnish its own drive.*" Ideas themselves elicit responses. Such a belief sounds like an echo of Herbert Spencer's dictum: "At each age the intellectual action which a child likes is a healthful one for it"; and it is in agreement with Bertrand Russell's later statement: "Disgust is proof of premature presentation of matter in indigestible form."

The child possesses naturally an eager curiosity which pries into all varieties of human relations, and a "will-to-power"⁷⁸ which grows with successful application. He is attracted by *action* either in the concrete or in stories, as Uhl's study shows. History, if presented in a form easy enough for him to understand and to master, appeals naturally to this intense curiosity or desire for mental manipulation. Artificial stimuli need not be added.

Since pupils of middle-grade-age have an almost unlimited curiosity, the teacher need only to "set the stage" or "condition the behavior" and the desired responses will arise spontaneously. "This

EDITOR'S NOTE: This article was begun in the December number, where Miss Kelty discussed the possibility of the social studies being organized around Life Problems; whether it is possible to distinguish between the objectives of history in general and the objectives in history for the Middle Grades; and what materials should be selected for Middle-Grade children.

spontaneous wish to learn which every normal child possesses—should be the driving force in education.”⁷⁹ It remains for the teacher to see that the conditioning activities are suited to the capacity.

The appeal to the competitive motive as a stimulus in education is less utilized than formerly, although it still survives in the form of competition with one's own record. The results of many experiments have shown that exact knowledge of one's progress, measured and recorded in objective form, is a decided stimulus to learning.⁸⁰ The reward of effort is the satisfaction derived from success achieved; it is inherent in the situation. The teacher does not need to “hand out” satisfaction or annoyance; for the great incentive to learn is offered by the experience of success.

Nevertheless, social recognition is classed by some writers as a need.⁸¹ Gilchrist's study quoted by Book⁸² showed that in the experiment the group which was encouraged made a gain of 79 per cent in regular school work, while those who were discouraged showed a deterioration of 6 per cent. Praise, first that of the teacher and later that of the group, is more effective than blame, but it should not be stated in terms of comparison with others. It is certain that love of praise and dislike of disapproval remain dominant motives throughout life, but they may be only incentives added to an interest which exists for its own sake.

To summarize: the usual appeals in the learning of history are (1) mental manipulation and self-activity, and (2) social approval. There is, however, an additional psychological factor of particular significance in determining a child's attitude when approaching a new subject. This factor requires special attention. It is “mind-set,” or “readiness,” or, to use the older term, “apperception.”

MIND-SET, READINESS, APPERCEPTION: THE STEP OF PREPARATION

Whether or not a given child purposes at a given time to attend to certain material is determined largely by his “mind-set.” The power of mind-set to determine a precept, Norsworthy and Whiteley say,⁸³ is stronger in children than in adults. The extreme importance of the warming-up process must therefore be recognized by teachers.

Mind-set may be initiated by review discussions, by recalling pertinent materials from the children's own previous experiences, or by *supplying* new experiences. In these ways the direction of future activity is indicated and children's resources for meeting it are pooled. Such exercises furnish the “need” element of the learning cycle⁸⁴ (Need plus Stimulus plus Response equals Adaptation) and the “pre-test” member of the “mastery formula.”⁸⁵

Mind-set must also be considered in the initial phases of problem-solving exercises, but the teacher should be careful to ascertain that children are in possession of the basic facts needed.

In middle-grade social studies these introductory exercises are best conducted orally. They furnish a natural transition from the work of the primary grades, which is largely oral, to that of the middle grades, which is largely reading. Many fourth- and fifth-grade teachers make the mistake of plunging children immediately and entirely into reading as a medium of instruction, without assistance of any kind in directing mind-set. The result is lack of interest and waste of effort. If any of Professor Morrison's five “steps” is to be omitted, it surely should not be this step of Exploration or Preparation.

However, after adequate preparation such as has been suggested, the whole atmosphere of the schoolroom and the teacher's own attitude should suggest that pupils are now expected to engage in hard and systematic work to master the new material. Such an attitude is lacking in many schools, to the distinct detriment of many of our children.

FROM VAGUE UNDIFFERENTIATED UNITY TO ANALYSIS: THE STEP OF PRESENTATION

Piaget⁸⁶ quotes from Bergson that in the beginning, a perception is a unity and only after the unity has been perceived does the process of analysis advance to the dissociating of elements and to the examining of them separately. While such a conception of unity cannot guide educational practice throughout all activities, it is readily applicable to history. In history, development from the vague and general to the definite and specific, is the usual order of development of a new unitary idea.⁸⁷ From the point of view of the learning cycle, such a viewing-of-the-whole exercise constitutes a “stimulus”; and it is the “teach”-ing member of the mastery formula⁸⁸—to be followed immediately by “testing,” “diagnosing the results,” “adapting procedure,” and “reteaching.”

In Part II the desirability of bridging the gap in practice between the oral work of the primary grades and the reading process in the middle grades was strongly urged. Therefore this view of the whole (or presentation step) should be given orally to the middle-grade children. After they have thus become acquainted with the general course of the action, and have become somewhat familiar with the vocabulary in which it is described, they are able to read understandingly and independently materials which they might otherwise have found difficult.

After several months of such practice, the

amount of oral work presented by the teacher may be lessened, and more may be left to the independent effort of the pupil.

This "presentation step" takes the form of a brief introduction to the new unit or story. Elsewhere the writer has given detailed examples of such stories for the fourth and fifth grades.⁸⁹

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG CHILDREN

When the teacher begins to diagnose the results of the presentation-test (ascertaining the children's understanding of the oral story which was told them), she at once finds herself confronted with a problem which, from that time on, must be considered continually throughout the complete process of instruction—i.e., the problem of individual differences in ability, in interests, and in personality.

To teach a group of children effectively and, at the same time, to provide for individual progress, is a supreme test of any teacher's skill. In most school systems at present, teachers teach only groups. In a few systems the entire organization has been revamped to allow for completely individual instruction. But comparatively few teachers have yet mastered a technique for combined group-and-individual progress.

No attention need be given here to describing group-teaching; how to carry on such an activity is well known. But, while teachers acknowledge the existence of individual differences, they as yet know little about providing for them on the middle-grade level. The following table of failures gives clear evidence that instruction has not been adapted to individuals, and that children's difficulties have not been diagnosed and remedied.

PER CENT OF SUBJECT FAILURES⁹⁰

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
History			.3	9.4	38.6	54.2
Reading	99.1	89.7	67.2	55.5	39.5	32.9

The percentages are not to be interpreted as meaning that a failing pupil failed only in history or reading, but that he failed in at least that subject. The low percentage in history in the fourth grade is probably to be explained by the fact that some of the systems studied did not offer history in that grade. It is clear that history began to be a critical subject in the fifth grade and that it so continued until the eighth grade, where it was the chief subject of failure. The probable dependence of history on reading is also a reasonable conclusion.

Similar differences in ability are to be found in the range of results on the Van Wagenen History Information Scales A and B combined. In the

fourth grade the range was from 0-25; in the fifth from 4-35; and in the sixth from 5-46. The generally low scores indicate that individual difficulties had not been diagnosed.

Freeman, in an unpublished study of repeated measurements of mental ability of the same children, found that the standard deviation increased greatly during the ages from nine to twelve, after which it decreased, the boys at all ages being more variable than the girls. He also stated that complex traits were more variable than the simpler traits, and that introducing symbolism into an activity increased the variability. The children retained much the same relative positions at various ages;⁹¹ the *order* of development varied much less than the rate.⁹²

The conclusion to be drawn from these investigations is that it behooves the teacher to discover differences in ability as soon as possible, and to adapt materials and procedure accordingly. In most cases she will have to learn a special technique for so doing.

While difficulties in processes and in achievements may be diagnosed by clinical workers or remedial teachers, the number and range of differences is so great that the only practical solution to the problem of instruction in schools is the mastery by the classroom teacher of a technique of providing for those differences.

IMAGINATION AND VICARIOUS EXPERIENCE: THE READING OF HISTORY

After the children's initial introduction to a new story (the steps of preparation and presentation), they complete this view of the whole by reading the story *as a whole*. By the time they have reached the fourth grade, they have attained nearly their full ability in simple recognition of words;⁹³ progress from that time on is in ability to connect meanings. According to Morrison this ability to get meaning from the printed page is the distinguishing characteristic between primary-grade and middle-grade children.

It may seem that one describes a very simple process when he says that children read a story and thus obtain an understanding of it; but the simple phrase—"to read a story"—describes a very complicated process. According to Starch,⁹⁴ the psychological processes involved are: (1) an imaginative picturing of the event, conceiving persons, and placing actions and time in their relationships; (2) connecting each event with what went before and what comes after, so as to get an idea of continuity (the text may render this process easy or may make it almost impossible); (3) judgments as to causes and effects (possible only after the events of the story are known);

and (4) remembering the main outline of the story.

The imagining necessary throughout this complicated process is assisted by the tendency of children to identify the self with objects which are the center of interest.⁹⁵ The phrase "vicarious experience" is widely used to describe this tendency toward identification.

The imagination thus actively stimulated helps to interpret experiences distant both in place ("spatial imagination") and in time ("temporal imagination"); but the children's own past experiences are the only bases upon which this imaginative interpretation can be made. A tendency against which the teacher must therefore be constantly on guard, is the tendency of the children to read into the past, conditions and conceptions of today, which were not characteristic of the period under consideration. Children can *imagine* freely, but to imagine "following the description laid down by the historian"⁹⁶ is another matter altogether. Yet that is "an important requirement of scientific thinking."

Many devices have been prepared to assist in these processes of imagination—pictures, maps, models, charts, graphs, dramatizations, construction, etc.

Whether or not the child is able through his imaginative experience to obtain an adequate picture of an historical scene depends largely on the text. Reed⁹⁷ quotes an old nursery rhyme as descriptive of the treatment of history stories in many texts:

I'll tell you a story
Of Jack-a-Nory
And now my story's begun.
I'll tell you another
Of Jack and his brother
And now my story's done.

Obviously, little can be *learned* from such a text; it must be memorized. Details are necessary for the building up of meanings and the clarifying of concepts. Great care should therefore be exercised in the choice of a text. (As to the importance of the language in which the text is written, see pages 25-27.)

Because of individual differences, at the same time some children in a fifth grade class may be reading from a book written for the seventh grade; most of the group will be reading the same story from books written for the fifth grade; while still others will be reading the same story from books written for primary children.

To obtain a clearer picture of the event, children should read from several different sources. Such a practice will make word-memory—the bane of all history-teaching—difficult and will instead force the children to follow a train of thought.

Books should be readily available while they are reading. First, exact page references are given, and later they may find their own stories.

After the children have read the story only, they are tested as to their ability (1) to get the main points, (2) to learn detailed facts, (3) to find reasons or causes, (4) to organize knowledge around problems. In order to help them distinguish important from unimportant facts, a few questions are usually asked, *few* because it is desirable to concentrate attention and to test memory only on important phases. The children will of course focus their attention upon those phases about which they are to be questioned.⁹⁸ It is undesirable that they form the habit of detailed analytical study of every sentence and paragraph which they read.

A recent investigation⁹⁹ of the placement of study-questions indicated that the greatest degree of mastery was gained by the use of questions placed *before* the reading material, and that the questions aided only in the recall of the facts with which they dealt. The investigator's own interpretation of the superiority of questions placed before the reading material was that it was the result of mind-set. Since this discussion has attempted to show that mind-set should be established in young children by an introductory exercise before the reading begins, the results of Washburne's investigation need not be considered seriously. Under different introductory conditions, his findings might have been quite different.

The testing mentioned above is carried on not only by means of questions, but it is also provided by the discussion period, the projects or activities undertaken, and the formal tests.

During the entire reading-period, which may last for several days, each child in the average and upper-ability groups progresses at his own rate. He reads the story and answers the questions to himself or to the teacher. If he cannot answer, he re-reads. Possibly the teacher finds it necessary to deal with the lower-ability group as a whole, working with them on their reading at the same time that the more independent children are working alone. For this reason, if for no other, it is not desirable to have a second class in a room reciting while the first is studying.¹⁰⁰

Gates' investigation¹⁰¹ showed the advantage to be gained from the individual pupil's reciting to himself after re-reading, rather than continuing to re-read indefinitely without testing himself. Such activities as these should be clearly explained to the children as the study-procedure which they are expected to follow. They are literally to be *taught* "how to study."

In addition to the regular reading exercises, children should be encouraged to read for pleas-

INDEX

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOLUME XXIV

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

JANUARY-DECEMBER, 1933

- Age, History Teaching in the Machine, 301.
- Ahl, F. N., Technocracy, 192.
- Aims for History, 363.
- American Historical Association, 47th Meeting, 65; List of Officers and Committees, 69.
- American History, Character of Nineteenth Century, 399; Comparative Space by Periods of Sixteen, Textbooks, 459; Methods of Instruction in, 40; New Approach to the Study of, 149; Vocabulary in, 219.
- American History Students, Do, Change Their Attitudes After One Term's Work, 25.
- American Observer, 462.
- American Revolution, Suggestion for a New Synthesis on the Causes of, 30.
- Ancient, History via Main Street, 200.
- Arndt, C. O., Evaluation of the Soviet Five Year Plan, 10.
- Arnett, A. M., book review by, 49.
- Archives, The National, Building, 177.
- Baker, E. V., Do We Teach Racial Intolerance? 86.
- Barnard, A. F., Supplementary Work in Greek History, 310.
- Baron, S., book review by, 160.
- Barzun, J., book review by, 113, 335.
- Bauer, R. H., Nazi Revolution and Its Influence on the Teaching of History in Germany, 421.
- Bennett, W. C., book review by, 224.
- Bernd, F., Two Class Projects in Medieval History, 217.
- Bibliographies, Social Studies, 219; of educational theses, 221.
- Biography, Methods of Teaching History Through, 14; chart for United States History, 364.
- Birdsall, P., German "Pledge" Diplomacy, 372.
- Blaisdell, D. C., book review by, 45.
- Book Reviews, 40, 106, 160, 222, 276, 334, 400, 464.
- Brebner, J. B., editor of Book Reviews, 40, 106, 160, 222, 276, 334, 400, 464.
- Bye, E. C., Fusion or Confusion? 264.
- California, Southern, Social Science Association, 38, 330.
- Carman, H. J., editor of Book Reviews, 40, 106, 160, 222, 276, 334, 400, 464.
- Case Work, Effective Remedial, in the History Classroom, 153.
- Castaneda, C. E., Teaching of History in the Secondary Schools of Mexico, 246.
- Chart, Showing the Development of Minor Parties in the United States, 89.
- Church, A. M., Our Forefathers in Hawaii, 429.
- Cirlot, F. L., book review by, 119.
- Citizenship, Economic, 221; Neglected Factor in, 275; World, Building for, 104.
- Civic, Project in, Attitudes and Conduct, 259.
- Civics, Legal Requirements for the Teaching of, 181.
- Clem, O. M., and Ellis, W. J., Comparative Space by Periods of Sixteen American History Textbooks, 459.
- Clough, S. B., book review by, 471, 472.
- Colby, E. T., History Drama—Project in the High School, 268.
- Collateral Reading, Problem and Value of, 263.
- Colonial Policy, Dutch and American, in the Malay Archipelago, 77.
- Commission on the Emergency in Education, Depression and the Schools, 326.
- Committee on Current Information, 328.
- Communication from E. B. Wesley, 332.
- Comparative Space by Periods of Sixteen American History Textbooks, 459.
- Connecticut Tercentenary in 1935, 399.
- Constitution, The Guardian of the: Article V, 72.
- Contemporary World, 148, 273.
- Cook, T. L., book review by, 280, 336, 405.
- Correction, Reproof or, 340.
- Coulomb, C. A., Recent Historical Publications, 53, 121, 167, 231, 284, 340, 410, 476.
- Crisis, History Teaching in this Intellectual, 357.
- Criticisms, Some Current, of the Teaching of History, 241.
- Current Events, Major Objectives in the Teaching of, 319; and Political Culture, 378; Radio, 463.
- Current Information, Committee on, 328.
- Curriculum, in the Elementary School, 39; for Undergraduate Study, 38.
- Debts, Franco-American, 129.
- Dentler, C. L., Contemporary World, 148, 273.
- Depression—Blame the Social Sciences, 13; and the Schools 326; Textbooks and, 333.
- Detroit Social Science Bulletin, 219.
- Dix, J. P., Junior High School Classroom Project in Civic Attitudes and Conduct, 259.
- Donovan, H. D. A., New Course in European History in New York City High Schools, 97, 186.
- Drama, History, Project in the High School, 268.
- Eagan, J. M., book review by, 46.
- Economics, Outline for a Practical Unit in Consumption, 456; Teaching, and Sociology in the High School, 254.
- Elementary School, Curriculum in, 39; Present Trends and Current Practices in the Teaching in, 201.
- El Paso Schools, 330.
- Enderis, G., History Teaching in Nazi Germany, 300.
- European History, New Course in, in New York City High Schools, 97, 186.
- Experiment in the History Laboratory, 252.
- Facts or Ideas in the Social Studies, 28.
- Farr, H. L., Ancient History via Main Street, 200.
- Faulkner, H. U., book review by, 109.
- Fenn, H. C., World History for This International Age, 193.
- Ferguson, W. K., book review by, 115.
- Flick, O. S., Problems and Methods in the Teaching of Economics and Sociology in the High School, 254.
- Fowler, D. W., An Experiment in the History Laboratory, 252.
- Franco-American Debts, 129.
- Franzen, C. G. F., Improvement Sheet for the Socialization of History, 101.
- Fusion, or Confusion? 264; Unit, Orientation Course in Social Science, 385.
- Gambill, J. M., book review by, 162.
- Gathany, J. M., Current Events and Political Culture, 378; Major Objectives in the Teaching of Current Events, 319.
- Geography Among the Social Studies in Secondary Education, 442.
- Georgia, Bicentennial, 158; Educational Association, 274.
- German "Pledge" Diplomacy, 372.
- Germany, History Teaching in Nazi, 300; Nazi Revolution and Its Influence on the Teaching of History in, 421.
- Gifted Child, 314, 366.
- Gold, A. B., book review by, 108, 229, 337.
- Golub, J., Do American History Students Change Their Attitudes After One Term's Work? 25.
- Grading, Motivating High School History Through the Use of a Point System of, 146.
- Greek, Supplementary Work in, History, 310.
- Guerard, A., book review by, 404.
- Guinness, R. B., Suggestion for a New Synthesis on the Causes of the American Revolution, 30.
- Hall, C. R., book review by, 45, 107, 114, 276.
- Hamilton, M. W., book review by, 464, 465.
- Hanson, G. L., Junior-Senior High School Reading List, 399.
- Harden, M., and Scranton, C., Present Trends and Current Practices in the Teaching of the Social Studies in the Elementary School, 201.
- Hawaii, Our Forefathers in, 429.
- Hawkes, J. L., A Unit Fusion Orientation Course in Social Science, 385.
- Henderson, H. A., A New Approach to the Study of American History, 149.
- Historical Accuracy in the Teaching of History in High Schools, 383.
- Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, 55, 122, 169, 234, 286, 345, 414, 478.
- Historical Publications, Recent, 53, 121, 167, 231, 284, 340, 410, 476.
- History Number, 105.
- Holman, J. L., Use of Radio in Teaching the Social Sciences, 81.
- Hunt, N. R., Social Attitudes and the Social Sciences in the Junior High School, 210.
- Intellectual, History Teaching in this, Crisis, 357.
- International, World History for This, Age, 193.
- Intolerance, Do We Teach Racial? 86.

INDEX TO THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOL. XXIV

- Iowa, College and Junior College Students' Meeting, 331; Course of Study in Vocations in State of, 159.
- Jackson, S. L., book review by, 471.
- Japanese, Sino-, Dispute, 293.
- Jessup, P. C., book review by, 334.
- Johnson, Z. T., The Problem and Value of Collateral Reading, 263.
- Jones, H. J., book review by, 473.
- Junior High School, Social Attitudes and the Social Sciences in the, 210.
- Kartozian, A. A., Methods of Teaching History Through Biography, 14.
- Kelty, M. G., The Processes of Learning History in Middle Childhood, 445.
- Keyserling, L., book review by, 282.
- Kraus, M., book review by, 337.
- Krey, A. C., History in the Machine Age, 301; Report of Progress of the Investigation of the Social Studies, 179.
- Laboratory, An Experiment in the History, 252; Work in Map Study for Prospective History Teachers, 34.
- Ladejinsky, W. I., book review by, 42, 224, 402, 470.
- Lake, E. E., The United States and the World Court, 135; name misspelled, 231.
- Langsam, W. C., book review by, 160.
- Lape, E. E., Editor's Note, correcting author's name, 231.
- League of Nations, Study Course on the, 38.
- Levin, M., book review by, 406.
- Life Problems, 445.
- Liquor Problem, 159.
- Lokke, C. L., book review by, 283.
- Longstreet, R. J., Biographical Chart for United States History, 364.
- Lonn, E., Laboratory Work in Map Study, 34.
- Luckau, A. M., Characteristics of Nineteenth Century American History Text-books, 399.
- Lundquist, B., book review by, 465, 466.
- Lyon, E. W., book review by, 228.
- Machine, History in the, Age, 301.
- MacNair, H. F., book review by, 112.
- Malay Archipelago, Dutch and American Colonial Policy in, 77.
- Map Study, Laboratory Work in, for Prospective History Teachers, 34.
- Martin, T. P., The National Archives Building, 177.
- Mauck, E. J., book review by, 111, 166.
- Maynard, P. W., Outline for a Practical Unit in Consumption Economics, 456.
- McKee, S., Jr., book review by, 110, 162.
- McLemore, R. A., Franco-American Debts, 1833 and 1933, 129.
- McMurry, D. L., Type-Study Units in the Social Studies, 431.
- Medieval, Two Class Projects in, History, 217.
- Methods, of Teaching History Through Biography, 14.
- Mexico, Teaching of History in the Secondary Schools of, 246.
- Middle Childhood, Processes of Learning History in, 445.
- Middle States Association Meeting, 37, 331.
- Minnesota Education Association, 37.
- Motivating High School History, 146.
- Mount Vernon, Washington's Map of, 105.
- Moving Picture Project, 268.
- Mullett, C. F., book review by, 41, 109, 222, 230, 279, 401, 468, 470.
- Murphy, L., book review by, 164.
- National Council for the Social Studies, Meeting, 158, 330; Third yearbook, 219.
- National Survey of Secondary Education, 399.
- Nazi, History Teaching in, Germany, 300; Revolution, Its Influence on the Teaching of History in Germany, 421.
- Nestor, I. F., Depression—Blame the Social Sciences, 13.
- New Declaration for History, 363.
- New England History Teachers' Association, 39, 399.
- New York, Social Science Section of the Teachers College Conference, 331.
- New York City High Schools, New Course in European History in, 97, 186; What is Being Done for Superior Child in, 314, 366.
- Nichols, R. F., History Teaching in this Intellectual Crisis, 357; book review by, 408.
- Notes on Periodical Literature, 18, 71, 377.
- Oklahoma Teachers' Meeting, 220.
- Parties, Chart Showing the Development of Minor, in the United States, 89.
- Peake, C. H., book review by, 226, 281, 338, 466.
- Pennsylvania Historical Association, 332.
- Pennsylvania, Western, Educational Conference, 332.
- Periodical Literature, Notes on, 18, 71, 377.
- Periodicals, Historical Articles in Current, 55, 122, 169, 231, 286, 345, 414, 478.
- Phillips, B. W., Some Current Criticisms of the Teaching of History, 241.
- Political Culture, Current Events and, 378.
- Political Science, Present Status of University Instruction in, 141.
- Powell, A. L., The Guardian of the Constitution: Article V, 72; Our Vice-Presidents: Forgotten Men, 5.
- Preview, Written, in History Classes, 105.
- Project, in Civic Attitudes and Conduct, 259; Two Class, in Medieval History, 217.
- Propaganda and the Curriculum, 275.
- Pruffer, J. F., Chart Showing the Development of Minor Parties in the United States, 89.
- Racial Intolerance, Do We Teach? 86.
- Radio, Current Events, 463; The Use of, in Teaching the Social Sciences, 81; Using in Teaching, 463.
- Reading, The Problem and Value of Collateral, 263.
- Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, 37, 104, 158, 219, 274, 328, 398, 462.
- Recent Historical Publications, 53, 121, 167, 231, 284, 340, 410, 476.
- Red Cross Publications, 274.
- Regents' Examinations, 462.
- Remedial, Effective, Case Work in the History Classroom, 153.
- Reproof or Correction? 340.
- Richards, G. R. B., Notes on Periodical Literature, 18, 71, 377.
- Roucek, J. S., book review by, 46.
- Rugg, H., Social Program, 221.
- Russian Seminar, 159.
- Samford, C. D., Motivating High School History, 146.
- Sarkissian, A. O., book review by, 400.
- Seranton, C., and Harden, M., Present Trends and Current Practices in the Teaching of the Social Studies in the Elementary School, 201.
- Sherwood, H. N., Relation of the United States to the Sino-Japanese Dispute, 293.
- Shilling, D. C., Legal Requirements for the Teaching of Civics, 181.
- Sino-Japanese, Relation of the United States to the, Dispute, 293.
- Smith, D. V., Unit Plan in Social Science versus the Social Subjects, 22.
- Social Program, 221.
- Social Sciences, Depression—Blame the, 13; Social Attitudes and the, in the Junior High School, 210; Source Material, 274; Unit Fusion Orientation Course in the, 385; Unit Plan in, versus the Social Subjects, 22; Use of Radio in Teaching the, 81.
- Social Studies, Present Trends and Current Practices in the Teaching of the, in the Elementary School, 201; Report of Progress of the Investigation in, 179.
- Social Studies, Recent Happenings in, 37, 104, 158, 219, 274, 328, 398, 462.
- Socialization, Improvement Sheet for the, of History, 101.
- Socialized Recitation, 324.
- Sociology, Teaching Economics and, in the High School, 254.
- Source Material, Social Science, 274.
- Soviet Five Year Plan, Evaluation of, 10.
- Stegmeir, C., Effective Remedial Case Work in the History Classroom, 153.
- Steinberg, S., Gifted Child, 366, 314.
- Stewart, J. H., book review by, 108, 227, 339.
- Stock, L. F., Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, 55, 122, 169, 234, 286, 345, 414, 478.
- Story-Telling Recitation, 269.
- Superior Child, 314, 366.
- Swahn, A. D., Do American History Students Change Their Attitudes After One Term's Work, 25.
- Teacher, Qualities of the Good, 40.
- Teaching History, Some Current Criticisms of the, 241.
- Technocracy, 192.
- Test, Coöperative, Service, 104.
- Testing, Method of, 463.
- Textbooks, and the Depression, 333; Character of Nineteenth Century, 399; Comparative Space of, 459.
- Thompson, M. W., Present Status of University Instruction in Political Science, 141.
- Tracy, S., book review by, 50, 118, 408, 466, 472.
- Truman, L. W., book review by, 164, 464, 467.
- Type-Study Units, 431.
- Undergraduate, Curriculum for, Study, 38.
- Unit, Fusion Orientation Course in Social Science, 385; of Learning, 104, 245; Mastery Technique, 19; Plan in Social Science versus the Social Subjects, 22; Type-Study, 431.
- United States, and the World Court, 135.
- University Instruction, Present Status, in Political Science, 141.
- Urch, E. J., Historical Accuracy in the Teaching of History in High Schools, 383; book review by, 47, 112, 116.
- Vaillant, G., book review by, 406.
- Vanderbosch, A., Dutch and American Colonial Policy in Malay Archipelago, 77.

INDEX TO THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOL. XXIV

Vice-Presidents, Our, Forgotten Men, 5.
 Vocabulary in American History, 219.
 Vocations in State of Iowa, 159.
 Walker, M. M., Socialized Recitation as a Means of Achieving History Objectives, 324.
 Wallace, S. A., book review by, 467.
 Watts, A. P., Report of American Historical Association, 65.
 Welch, A. V., Unit Mastery Technique, 19.
 Wesley, E. B., Facts or Ideas in the Social Studies? 28; book review by, 112; Communication from, 332.
 Westphal, A. C. F., book review by, 227.
 Whitaker, R., Geography Among the Social Studies in Secondary Education, 442.
 Wilgus, A. C., book review by, 44, 47, 48, 106, 280, 404.
 Williams, C. R., A New Declaration for History, 363.
 Wilson, H. E., Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, 37, 104, 158, 219, 274, 328, 398, 462.
 Women's International League, 398.
 Workbook, America's Story, 330; Can the, Be Justified? 463; Directed History Study, 330; Geography, 330; in High School Observation and Practice Teaching, 466; Origin of Contemporary Civilization, 463; Our People's Story, 330; Use of, 220.
 World Citizenship, Building for, 104.
 World Court, The United States and the, 135.
 World History for This International Age, 193.
 Written Preview in History Classes, 105.
 Yearbook, Third, National Council, 219.

BOOK REVIEWS Arranged Alphabetically by Authors' Names

Acheson, S. H., Joe Bailly, the Last Democrat, 464.
 Addison, T. G., Financial Reorganization of Dominican Republic, 44.
 Allen, M. P., William Walker, Filibuster, 404.
 Allen, W. H., Rockefeller—Giant, Dwarf, Symbol, 229; Correction or Reproof, 340.
 American Geographic Society (publishers), New England's Prospect: 1933, 159.
 American Library Association (publisher), Reading with a Purpose, 162.
 Ames, H. A., and Johnson, L. J., The Case of China and Japan, 275.
 Andrews, F. F., The Holy Land under Mandate, 160.
 Ault, W. O., Europe in the Middle Ages, 116.
 Barzun, J., The French Race, 404.
 Baum, H. V., and Miller, O. B., My Book of History, Volume I, Beginnings; II, Conquests; III, New Nations; IV, Explorations, 339.
 Beals, C., Porfirio Diaz, Dictator of Mexico, 464.
 Becker, C. L., The Heavenly City of the Eighteenth Century Philosophers, 279.
 Belloc, H., A History of England IV, 109.
 Benton, E. J., Hamm, W. A., and Bourne, H. E., A Unit History of the United States, 112.

BOOK REVIEWS

Bining, A. C., British Regulation of the Colonial Iron Industry, 476.
 Bourne, H. E., Hamm, W. A., and Benton, E. J., A Unit History of the United States, 112.
 Bowman, I., The Pioneer Fringe, 228.
 Bradley, A. G., Colonial Americans in Exile, 52.
 Braga, E., and Grubb, K. G., The Republic of Brazil, 106.
 Brandt, J. A., Towards the New Spain, 406.
 Brebner, J. B., A Bibliography of English Literature and History, 50.
 Brown, R. M., and Thorp, M. T., Directed History Study, 330.
 Bruce, H. R., American Parties and Politics, 167.
 Bruun, G., Saint-Just: Apostle of the Terror, 107.
 Bye, E. C., Bibliography on the Teaching of the Social Studies, 462.
 Cantor, N. F., Crime, Criminals and Criminal Justice, 111.
 Carr, H., Old Mother Mexico, 106.
 Cary, M., The Legacy of Alexander, 472.
 Charlot, J., Thompson, J. E., and Pollock, H. E. D., Study of the Ruins of Cobá, Quintana Roo, Mexico, 280.
 Chinard, G. (editor), Dialogues Curieux, et Mémoires de l'Amérique Septentrionale, 335.
 Church, F. C., The Italian Reformers, 1534-1564, 115.
 Churchill, W., Amid These Storms, 410.
 Clark, G., Economic Rivalries in China, 226.
 Clough, S. B., Modern History, 220.
 Committee on Materials of Instruction, Story of Writing, etc., 274.
 Condliffe, J. B., China Today: Economic, 226.
 Corys, H. M., Compulsory Arbitration of International Disputes, 120.
 Counts, G. S., Dare the School Build a New Social Order? 39.
 Craine, E. J., Conquistador, 47.
 Crawford, C. C., and Fancier, D. G., Teaching the Social Studies, 112.
 Crump, H. J., Colonial Admiralty in the Seventeenth Century, 334.
 Cunningham, F. F., Laboratory Manual in the Geography of South America, 44.
 Davis, E. C., Ancient Americans, 48.
 Deming, F. K., Our People's Story, 330.
 Dentler, C. L., Contemporary World, 463.
 Devine, E. T., Progressive Social Action, 467.
 Dietz, F. C., Political and Social History of England, 50.
 Dodwell, H., The Founder of Modern Egypt, 410.
 Driver, C. S., John Sevier, 40.
 Dunn, F. S., The Diplomatic Protection of Americans in Mexico, 465.
 Ellis, E., Directed Study Workbook in World History, 330.
 Emerson, C. D., Old New York and Young New Yorkers, 337.
 Fairchild, F. R., Economics, 282.
 Fancier, D. G., and Crawford, C. C., Teaching the Social Studies, 112.
 Faubel, A. L., Principles of Economics, 282.
 Faulkner, H. U., The Quest for Social Justice, 1898-1914, 278.

BOOK REVIEWS

Fäy, C. R., Elements of Economics, 282; George Washington, Republican Aristocrat, 40.
 Fetter, F. W., Monetary Inflation in Chile, 44.
 Frank, W., The Dawn in Russia, 167.
 Gabriel, R. H., Sarah Eleanor Royce, A Frontier Lady, 161.
 Gaxotte, P., The French Revolution, 45.
 Gershoy, L., The French Revolution, 52.
 Gibbons, A. N., Origin of Contemporary Civilization, 463.
 Gillett, C. R., Burned Books, 51.
 Gray, H. L., The Influence of the Commons on Early Legislation, 470.
 Grubb, K. G., and Braga, E., The Republic of Brazil, 106.
 Hacker, L. M., and Kendrick, B. B., The United States Since 1865, 109.
 Hackett, C. W., Pichardo's Treatise on the Limits of Louisiana and Texas, I, 47.
 Hackin, J., and others, Asiatic Mythology, 164.
 Hall, D. G. E. (editor), The Dalhousie-Phayre Correspondence, 1852-1856, 410.
 Hamm, W. A., Bourne, H. E., and Benton, E. J., A Unit History of the United States, 112.
 Hartley, D., Mediaeval Costume and Life, 47.
 Hayes, C. J. H., Moon, P. T., and Wayland, J. W., World History, 108.
 Hazen, C. D., The French Revolution, 276.
 Hebard, R., Sacajawea, 282.
 Hicks, J. D., The Populist Revolt, 49.
 Higby, C. P., History of Modern Europe, 46.
 Hill, H. C., and Weaver, R. B., United States History by Units, 329.
 Holliday, C., The Dawn of Literature, 466.
 Holmes, T. R., The Architect of the Roman Empire, 50.
 Howard, H. N., Military Government in the Canal Zone, 44.
 Howe, M. A., DeW., Portrait of An Independent, 40.
 Insh, G. P., The Company of Scotland, 44, 230.
 Jacobsen, G. A., William Blathwayt, 401.
 Joerg, W. L. G., Pioneer Settlement, 228.
 Johnson, L. J., and Ames, H. A., The Case of China and Japan, 275.
 Jones, C. F., Laboratory Manual in the Geography of South America, 44.
 Jones, C. F., and Semple, E. C., American History and Its Geographic Conditions, 473.
 Jones, J. C., Vandenbosch, A., and Vandenbosch, M. B., Readings in Citizenship, 166.
 Jones, R. L., The Eighteenth Amendment and Our Foreign Relations, 280.
 Jordan, W. K., The Development of Religious Toleration in England, 469.
 Kandel, I. L. (editor), Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, 338; Expansion of Secondary Education, 338.
 Kany, C. E., Life and Manners in Madrid, 1750-1800, 406.
 Kastein, J., The Messiah of Ismir, Sababatai Zevi, 227.
 Kelly, J. E., Pedro de Alvarado, Conquistador, 404.

INDEX TO THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOL. XXIV

BOOK REVIEWS

- Kendrick, B. B., and Hacker, L. M., *The United States Since 1865*, 109.
 Kerner, R. J., *Bohemia in the Eighteenth Century*, 46.
 King, G., *The Rise of Rome*, 408.
 Kohn, S., and Meyendorff, A. F., *The Cost of the War to Russia*, 224.
 Krey, A. C., *Manual for Teachers of History and Other Social Studies*, 158.
 Latané, E., *America's Story*, 330.
 League of Nations Association, *The Case of China and Japan*, 275.
 League of Nations' Mission of Educational Experts, *Reorganization of Education in China*, 281.
 Lee, T. F., *Latin American Problems*, 106.
 Lebanov-Rostovsky, *Russia and Asia*, 470.
 Lockwood, F. C., *Pioneer Days in Arizona*, 110.
 Lokke, C. L., *France and the Colonial Question, 1763-1801*, 228.
 Machray, R., *Poland, 1914-1931*, 120.
 Mason, G., *Columbus Came Late*, 48.
 Mason, J. A., *Archaeology of Santa Marta*, 48.
 Means, P. A., *The Fall of the Inca Empire*, 224.
 Meng, J. J., *The Comte de Vergennes*, 231.
 Meston, L., *Nationhood for India*, 52.
 Meyendorff, A. F., and Kohn, S., *The Cost of the War to Russia*, 224.
 Miller, O. B., and Baum, H. V., *My Book of History, Volume I, Beginnings; II, Conquests; III, New Nations; IV, Explorations*, 339.
 Moon, P. T., Hayes, C. J. H., and Wayland, J. W., *World History*, 108.
 Morrell, W. P., *British Colonial Policy*, 41.
 Morris, E. H., *The Temple of Warriors*, 48.
 Morris, R. B., *Historiography of America, 1600-1800*, 231.
 Morse, J. M., *A Neglected Period of Connecticut's History, 1818-1850*, 474.
 Mowat, R. B., *England in the Eighteenth Century*, 284; *The States of Europe, 1815-1871*, 227.
 Myers, A. C., *The Boy George Washington*, Age 16, 110.
 Myers, D. P., *World Disarmament*, 121.
 Neff, E., *A Bibliography of English Literature and History*, 50.
 Neumann, H., *Lives in the Making*, 282.
 Nevins, A., *Master's Essays in History*, 474.
 Nichols, R. F., *Franklin Pierce*, 40.
 Osburn, L. D., *Community and Society; An Introduction to Sociology*, 463.
 Overacker, L., *Money in Elections*, 408.
 Pahlow, E. W., *Man's Great Adventure*, 466.
 Peake, C. H., *Nationalism and Education in Modern China*, 113.
 Peel, C. S., *The Stream of Time*, 50.
 Pinchon, E., *Viva Villa! A Recovery of the Real Pancho Villa*, 404.
 Pitman, L., *A Treatise on the State*, 336.
 Pollard, R. T., *China's Foreign Relations, 1917-1931*, 466.
 Pollack, H. E. D., Thompson, J. E., and Charlot, J., *Study of the Ruins of Cobá, Quintana Roo, Mexico*, 280.

BOOK REVIEWS

- Pollock, J. K., *Money and Politics Abroad*, 164.
 Porritt, A., editor, *The Causes of War*, 121.
 President's Research Committee, *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, 159.
 Rappoport, A. S., *History of Palestine*, 160.
 Ray, P. O., *Major European Governments*, 405.
 Raymond, D. N., *Oliver's Secretary*, 116.
 Reeves, C. E., *Standards for High School Teaching*, 466; *Workbook in High School Observation and Practice Teaching*, 466.
 Regier, C. C., *The Era of the Muckrakers*, 408.
 Richards, G. R. B., *Florentine Merchants in the Age of the Medici*, 472.
 Rippey, J. F., *Historical Evolution of Hispanic America*, 51.
 Roberts, S. C., *Picture Book of British History*, 53.
 Robertson, J. A., *The Far East*, 53.
 Robinson, G. T., *Rural Russia under the old Regime*, 42.
 Rodney, G. B., *Edge of the World*, 48.
 Roucek, J. S., *Contemporary Roumania*, 160.
 Saillens, E., *French History*, 166.
 Salzman, L. F., *A Survey of English History*, 230.
 Schlesinger, A. M., *The Rise of the City, 1878-1898*, 278.
 Scholes, A. G., *Education for Empire Settlement*, 279.
 Schuyler, R. L., *Josiah Tucker*, 53.
 Scott, E. F., *The Literature of the New Testament*, 119.
 Seligman, E. R. A. (editor), *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, 474.
 Semple, E. C., *The Geography of the Mediterranean Region*, 118.
 Semple, E. C., and Jones, C. F., *American History and Its Geographic Conditions*, 473.
 Shaw, C. G., *Trends of Civilization and Culture*, 283.
 Shay, F., *Incredible Pizarro*, 47.
 Shepherd, W. R., *Atlas of Medieval and Modern History*, 121.
 Sheppard, E. W., *Bedford Forrest*, 40.
 Showerman, G., *Rome and the Romans*, 408.
 Skinner, C. L., *Beaver, Kings and Cabins*, 468.
 Small, N. J., *Some Presidential Interpretations of the Presidency*, 283.
 Snedden, D., and Snedden, G., *Basal Social Science*, 465.
 Spell, J. R., *The Life and Works of José J. Fernández de Lizardi*, 47.
 Spence, L., *Myths of the North American Indians*, 280.
 Spratling, W., *Little Mexico*, 106.
 Steggerda, M., *Anthropometry of Adult Maya Indians*, 280.
 Stenton, F. M., *The First Century of English Feudalism*, 118.
 Stevenson, B., *American History in Verse*, 310.
 Stull, De F., and Hatch, R. W., *Geography Workbook*, 330.
 Swain, J. W., *Beginning the Twentieth Century*, 400.

BOOK REVIEWS

- Tewksbury, D. G., *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities Before the Civil War*, 476.
 Thomas, A., *The International Labor Organization*, 45.
 Thomas, K. E., *The Real Personages of Mother Goose*, 467.
 Thompson, E. H., *People of the Serpent*, 52.
 Thompson, J. E., *Mexico Before Cortez*, 406.
 Thompson, J. E., Pollock, H. E. D., and Charlot, J., *Study of the Ruins of Cobá, Quintana Roo, Mexico*, 280.
 Thompson, J. W., *Economic and Social History of Europe in the Later Middle Ages*, 339.
 Thompson, W., *Greater America*, 106.
 Thorp, M. T., and Brown, R. M., *Directed History Study*, 330.
 Trevelyan, G. M., *Ramillus and the Union with Scotland*, 222.
 Trotsky, L., *History of the Russian Revolution*, 402.
 Trotter, R. G., *British Empire-Commonwealth*, 284.
 Turner, E. R., *The Cabinet Council of England in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries*, 468.
 Turner, F. J., *The Significance of Sections in American History*, 337.
 Vandenbosch, A., Jones, J. C., and Vandenbosch, M. B., *Readings in Citizenship*, 166.
 Van Deusen, G. G., *Sieyes: His Life and His Nationalism*, 114.
 Ware, E. E., *Business and Politics in the Far East*, 226.
 Warren, C., *Jacobin and Junto*, 108.
 Waterhouse, G., *Simon van der Stel's Journal of his Expedition to Namaqualand*, 284.
 Wayland, J. W., Hayes, C. J. H., and Moon, P. T., *World History*, 108.
 Weaver, R. B., and Hill, H. C., *United States History by Units*, 329.
 Webster, H., *Ancient Civilization*, 466; *Modern European Civilization*, 471.
 Weinberg, L., *America in the Machine Age*, 167.
 Wendelin, E. C., *Subject Index to the Financial Documents of the League of Nations*, 120.
 White, L. A., *Robert Barnwell Rhett*, 40.
 Whiting, F. B., *Grit, Grief and Gold*, 283.
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 Wilkerson, M. M., *Public Opinion and The Spanish-American War*, 167.
 Williams, E. T., *China Yesterday and Today*, 166.
 Williams, G. D., *Maya-Spanish Crosses in Yucatan*, 44.
 Williams, R. F., *Does History Repeat Itself?* 113.
 Witman, S. L., *American Government*, 220.
 Woodbine, G. E., *De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Regni Angliae*, 231.
 World Peace Foundation (publishers), *Ten Years of International Jurisdiction; International Intellectual Cooperation; Verdict of the League: China and Japan in Manchuria*, 474.
 Young, G., *The Pendulum of Progress*, 113.

ure during the library period and at home. An adequate supply of attractive books is an essential condition to success in developing such an interest.

The entire reading period which has been described above constitutes a part of the step of "assimilation"; in terms of the learning cycle it is a combination of repeated stimuli and responses.

Temporal imagination presents a special problem and has therefore been left for separate discussion. Time is not a question; Judd describes it as "a form in which sensations are held," i.e., a form of memory experience. The time-order is fundamental in the understanding of history; and yet it is well known that a full understanding of time is a comparatively late development in children. Just what degree of mastery, then, can reasonably be expected, and how can the development be assisted? Judd stated that a feeling of sequence,¹⁰² such as is afforded by the routine of school life itself, is one factor which helps in the development.

The results of the Binet-Simon tests placed the understanding of the distinction between morning and afternoon at the age of six years. Goddard's test-results¹⁰³ led him to conclude that by the ages of eight and nine children had clearly apprehended weeks and months respectively as real time-concepts. Mrs. Barnes¹⁰⁴ concluded that untrained children understood time badly until the age of twelve or thirteen, and needed the help of some concrete symbol in interpreting it.

As children develop their mastery of number, however, the ordering of events can be marked off quantitatively. Dates, then, have relative meanings, just as numbers do. There is no reason why various dates should not mean to children of middle-grade age much the same thing that they do to adults—i.e., relationship of the time of an event with reference to the time of other events which took place before or after—the time depending on the *number* or date. Thus numbers help children to organize time. Graphic devices such as a time-line, or a time-chart also help. The fixing in memory of the needed association is accomplished by drill, as in any other associative process.

That children's understanding of time increases rapidly was shown some years ago in an investigation conducted by the writer,¹⁰⁵ using as subjects children who had had no courses in history. Median scores on different tests of time-understanding were:

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4	Test 5
4B	6	48	35	6	21
4A	14	62	46	6	31
5B	34	69	56	19	34
5A	25	73	58	22	38
6B	42	83	68	29	37
6A	58	88	75	41	41

Later tests conducted by Mrs. Laverne Glenn¹⁰⁶ with fifth-grade children who had had spe-

cific training in time-relationships (including the numbering as to time-relationship of several groups of five items each) showed medians of 81 per cent, 75 per cent, and 70 per cent. Such numbering-tests consisting of five items involve a high degree of discrimination. Completion-tests involving only the insertion of the right date from a given list were found to be very easy for the children. Both types of tests (which were also used in the fourth grade in the same system) showed that children's understanding of time compared favorably with their general comprehension tests, when the difficult nature of some of the types of time-tests was taken into consideration.

Writers have suggested that time-understanding might be assisted by learning the approximate date or century of an event. Informal experiments in the writer's college classes have shown that the success of such a method was dependent on the possession of definite dates to which reference could be made. The definite date, however, was the key which was used.

To summarize, children's understanding of history is partly dependent on their understanding of time. Sequence in stories, the numbering devices of "dates" and graphic aids help to hold the train of historical ideas in order. Tests have showed that even untrained children increase rapidly in their mastery of time, and that children who are trained to do so, give a satisfactory performance in even a very difficult type of time-test. Definiteness as to what is expected of them is of great value. If children know exactly what they are to remember, they can teach and drill themselves to a great extent, the record of their progress furnishing the needed incentive.

THE FORMATION OF CONCEPTS: THE VOCABULARY OF HISTORY

As long ago as 1890 G. Stanley Hall in his famous study of the "Contents of Children's Minds"¹⁰⁷ revealed to an astonished adult world the fact that children habitually used words which, for them, had little or no meaning. Barnes' study¹⁰⁸ a few years afterwards, dealing specifically with terms in history, found that a few words were understood correctly as early as eight years of age in cases where children's experience had functioned well, but that most terms were poorly understood. Later Chambers¹⁰⁹ classified children's errors in meanings; he concluded that these were due mainly to similarity in sound to other words, to the visual forms, and to over-emphasis on limited applications.

Scott and Myers¹¹⁰ suggested that children's errors expressed language-difficulties in which the "whole *modus operandi* of thought is involved."

They concluded that "much of school learning is still only word manipulation." In 1925 Meltzer tested children of succeeding grades, beginning with the fifth, to determine growth in the accuracy of their concepts. He found the growth to be as follows¹¹¹ for the fifth and sixth grades.

Grade	5	6
Mean	27.40	45.59

Both processes—analysis and combination—he found going on at the same time, in the direction of a "changing, growing complex of particulars."

Ayer¹¹² then showed through her investigations that the school work of many pupils was blocked by lack of comprehension of abstract thoughts, abstract words, "literary embellishments," and long involved sentences. Piaget¹¹³ called attention to another fact significant to students of the learning process, i.e., that nine-to-eleven-year-old children not only did not understand many words and sentences which they repeated, but that they believed they did understand them and asked for few explanations.

Through such steps, students of children's concepts have come to realize that "the relation between language and thought becomes so intimate that the two are psychologically inseparable"; and if language is vague, thought is vague also. An interesting subject for further investigation is the question whether the ability to pronounce a word correctly helps in the process of association.

Freeman's repeated measurements of the same children showed a constant increase in vocabulary-mastery up to the age of eleven, and after that, a lesser but still constant increase—the girls being consistently a little in advance of the boys. Terman found vocabulary tests to be the best single measure of intelligence.

If the above-mentioned investigations are to be of practical value and if John Dewey¹¹⁴ is correct in saying that vague meanings are "the source from which flow most bad intellectual consequences, teachers must study the psychology of language much more thoroughly than they have done.

The natural method by which new words are added to the vocabulary is through experience. Words have meaning to the extent to which they are attached to real experiences. Afterwards the law of "redintegrative substitution"¹¹⁵ substitutes a part of the experience (the symbol or word) for the whole. The more widely varied the situations in which a given word has been encountered, the more meaningful responses it can then elicit. In the Binet-Simon test-results, one of the most notable advances from the age of ten to that of twelve years is in the ability to define abstract words.

Reading widens children's horizons so that their

knowledge may include "vicarious experiences" as well as actual participations. If adequate backgrounds in actual experiences have been laid, the readers are often able to interpret meanings from the context. Naturally, their success in so doing depends not only on the range of their experiences but also on the way in which their textbooks handle the problem of vocabulary. Texts should develop the meanings of crucial social concepts carefully.¹¹⁶

The general order in teaching the meanings connected with words is (1) the acquirement of the meaning or the experience, and (2) the attaching of the correct name to this concept. Sometimes teachers carry out elaborate exercises during their "step of preparation" to insure understanding *before* the new term is introduced—an application of Herbert Spencer's old law, "from the concrete to the abstract."

Teachers and textbook writers today take great pains to avoid the curse of verbalism. They attempt to teach meanings, not through the old practice of learning definitions or of asking children to try to form images of the words themselves, but through supplying or recalling experiences. In fact, the actual presence of the image may be a distinct hindrance to abstract thought.¹¹⁷ A word¹¹⁸ itself is a "carrier of an important generalization"; "it carries in epitomized form all the rich body of associations which entered into its first development," and should not continue to rely on the aid of an image of any kind.

Neither is the giving of the definition of a word an assurance that its meaning is intelligible to the pupils. A simple and understandable statement of the meaning of their own words is preferable,¹¹⁹ or the ability to apply the stated meaning to a new situation. In the children's wide-reading program they will meet many such situations.

The consensus of opinion seems to be that there is a natural interest in acquiring new words during the period of middle childhood, but that later inhibiting factors seem to enter in to prevent the use of the words acquired.

Teachers need assistance in the choice of the particular terms which should be developed in each of the school subjects. *The Report of the Commission on the Social Studies* has prepared a comprehensive vocabulary for all the social studies, one part of which is the Kelty-Moore Test of Social Concepts in the Middle Grades.¹²⁰ Several other comprehensive history-vocabularies have been published. These have been reviewed in a recent article in which the writer has drawn up a *Suggested Basic Vocabulary in American History for the Middle Grades*.¹²¹ Such lists should be broken up by teachers into learnable groups, and these groups

should be taught and tested in connection with a given subject-matter.¹²²

Methods of testing such concepts are suggested by Barr and Gifford in the *Second Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, p. 164; by Shaffer in the *Journal of Educational Psychology* 19:41-44 (1928); and by Kelty, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 85, 157-159, etc.

IMAGERY: PICTURES, MAPS, CHARTS, MODELS, DIAGRAMS, GRAPHS

One of the tasks confronting children's imaginations, which was not mentioned in the discussion of reading, is the attempt to visualize scenes about which the history stories tell. Henry Johnson long ago called this process, "Making the Past Real."¹²³ It seems probable that children have a more concrete imagery than have adults; this imagery is valuable, not so much in explaining words, as in constructing historical scenes; it is the basis of constructive imagination.

The subject of history is fortunate in having at its command such pictured resources as the *Pagant of America* Series issued by the Yale University Press, and certain collections such as the *Lehmann Historical Pictures*.¹²⁴ An investigation by Freeman¹²⁵ showed that pictures were "an invaluable means of getting certain kinds of experience of a concrete sort"; that still-pictures helped in the analysis of a situation; and that motion pictures were a superior device if development or motion was to be shown. Motion pictures were found not to be superior to other media in awakening interest; and class discussion added greatly to the values gained by other means.

Maps help in showing place-relationships; and graphic aids assist both in abstracting important phases or aspects for separate consideration, and in presenting comparisons. Such tabular forms are recognized as vital for the quantitative aspects of difficult comparisons. One of the few studies made of grade placement concerns itself with such materials. Mathews¹²⁶ concluded from the results of his investigation that circular graphs were easier to follow than bar or line graphs.

One of the newest of the visual aids is the motion picture. Knowlton and Tilton¹²⁷ experimented with the *Chronicles of America* series in a seventh grade class. Their results seem not to have come quite up to expectations, but they showed a positive gain in causal relationships, and in knowledge of persons and places. The experimental group, however, retained less than the control group in all excepting those relationships, and they showed a distinct loss in time-relationships.

Freeman and Wood's experiments¹²⁸ showed that the motion picture was a distinct asset to the study

of geography in the middle grades, though it aided more in the presentation of concrete facts than in the ability to give explanations and generalizations. The same might be expected to hold true in regard to history.

John Dewey¹²⁹ pointed out long ago that children were much more likely to see vividly if they were later to do something with the ideas gained—an application of which principle is discussed under the heading of *Projects*.

ENCOURAGING OR FORCING REACTIONS: DISCUSSION, PROJECTS

When one recalls the ceaseless activity, both mental and physical, engaged in by young children, it seems strange that teachers should be compelled to think about *forcing* reactions. And yet it is true that children in many cases have been so repressed, or so drilled into habits of merely reproducing what they have memorized, that by the time they enter the fourth grade they no longer exhibit a desire to react in original ways. Under such circumstances it becomes the teacher's task to *force* a thoughtful reaction as opposed to a memoriter reproduction. In happier situations, it is the teacher's task to *encourage* original reactions.

An opportunity for careful thought and for real problem-solving, as opposed to random guessing, is provided by the discussion period which follows the reading. The purpose of such an exercise is not the mere answering of fact questions; that was done while the reading was in progress. The discussion period, on the contrary, is an opportunity for children to consider the new aspects of a problem or story on which they are at work. Some teachers encourage children to record questions which occurred to them as they read and for which they found no answers in the texts; these are later taken up for class discussion. Others present questions worded very differently from the questions in any of the books, in order to ascertain whether children have really been following the thought, or whether they are bound to a certain wording or phraseology. Comparisons and contrasts are often pointed out, the reasons for actions stated, old principles applied to new settings, the geographical relationships made explicit, generalizations formulated, etc.

The usual difficulty with such discussions is that they are introduced into the unit too early—before the children have read widely enough to have gained a solid background in information. The result, in such cases, is the usual "pumping-a-dry-well" experience.

Problem-solving, if introduced at this stage instead of at the very beginning is not subject to the criticism which Dewey¹³⁰ expressed thus: "Any

habit of teaching which encourages the pupil—to glide over the thin ice of genuine problems reverses the true method of mind training." By the time that the discussion stage has been reached, children are equipped with the tools, and possess the orientation needed, for digging as deep into the problem as their level of ability permits. That they should now be able to discover a problem is, in itself, no mean achievement.

Teachers who need help in forcing reactions from children will be interested in Miss Helseth's¹³¹ account of how she trained her classes in asking questions and in finding answers for their questions.

So far the purely intellectual or verbal types of responses have been considered. Many other types are desirable, such as drawing, painting, sculpture, construction, observation and oral report, listening to the radio or to lectures, collecting, field trips, dramatization, composing music and poetry, etc. Some schools give no opportunity for such work, and provide insufficiently for physical responses of an expressive nature. Others go to the opposite extreme, and assume that no learning takes place except during construction, dramatization, etc. The best results will probably follow from finding a happy medium between the two extremes, and for providing in the primary grades a sufficient quantity of "activity" exercises so that middle grade children can build upon these and can emphasize different types.

The possibility of carrying on in the actual schoolroom situation such projects as those mentioned above, depends largely on two factors. (1) The first is the coöperation of the teachers of art, music, physical education, home economics, manual training, etc., with the grade teacher, so that correlation of effort is possible. Fortunately the teacher in the middle grades usually has it in her power to correlate History, English, and Geography herself without consulting any one. She can initiate as many group projects as her time will allow. (2) The second possibility is the use of the voluntary project carried on by the pupils at home, after hours, or in free activity periods.

At first the teacher may find it necessary to supply lists of suggested activities, for children who have had no experience in discovering the possibilities in a subject. After the suggestions have been given, however, and the materials have been made available, children's special predilections and abilities readily make themselves apparent. In such voluntary activities they make their own choices, draw up their own plans and proceed at their own rate. No "home work" should be required of middle-grade-children; the reading which they do for pleasure, and these voluntary projects can well take up all their free hours.

Educators are now emphasizing the importance of discovering special abilities and providing for creative expression at an early age. Terman says, "The direction of later achievement is likely to be foreshadowed by early pre-occupation of interest." Thorndike also reports considerable continuity in the main fields of interest from childhood to maturity. Therefore, it is to the advantage of the individual child that the school should discover his interests early. His first products may lack originality and they surely will lack technical excellence, but technique improves with variety of experience. Good models also help. Manual skill, however, is a comparatively late development and the teacher should not expect perfect products.

Emphasis at one time or another upon all these phases, and upon both group and individual activities helps in the development of the "whole child," while the general atmosphere in which all activities are carried on, does more than any specific exercises to determine personality development and adjustment.

Little needs to be said here as to the psychological processes of the specific types of projects. Drawing seems to be an almost universal means of race expression, but does not appear spontaneously in the activities of all children, though Ivanoff found a high correlation between history and "visual memory subjects" generally.¹³² However, when children desire to draw a scene from history, they usually find that they have looked at a great many items in pictures, and have read many details in stories, but they still do not have a clear mental image. So they go back to their sources to collect additional materials. Thus drawing reinforces observation. Construction and dramatization develop in the same way.

The use of the radio as an aid to learning history is so recent that few conclusions can yet be drawn. Reports are generally enthusiastic.¹³³ One investigation¹³⁴ of children's preferences in radio programs reported that history was the subject most enjoyed, and that dramatization was the type of presentation which was preferred.

MEMORY RESPONSES: REVIEWS, DRILL, TESTING

The old view that the middle grades were ideally suited to the acquiring of facts, has given place to the point of view that their main objective should be a wide acquaintance with the world, not in its subtle relationships but in its overt forms.

Memory, both in the simpler form of associated ideas and in the form of logical memory, plays a large part in forming such an acquaintanceship. The Stanford revision of the Binet Test places exercises involving logical memory (such as the story of the fire) at the ninth year level. While

in the middle-grade-period the power of associative memory, i.e., the simple memory span, is almost as strong as it ever will be, Freeman's test-results have led him to conclude that the memory for meaningful material continues to advance until well into maturity, partly because concentration of attention has improved and partly because the habit of classification has been formed. The memory for such meaningful material in history furnishes the foundation in fact so necessary for judgment and reasoning.

Most of the newer types of teaching lay little emphasis on review—possibly too little. The values of reviewing material from different angles—for example, by comparison, by tracing the development of a single topic, by biography, etc.—are not disputed, but teachers become absorbed in other matters, or feel that they can not take time. If definite provision is not made for such exercises in the textbooks, they are not usually carried out.

Miss Bassett¹³⁵ made a study of the amount retained by children. She showed that after an interval of four months, sixth graders retained a mean amount of 86%, the scores of the boys being slightly superior to those of the girls. Interest and effort, she estimated correlated with retention at .664.

Certain types of memory exercises in history represent or symbolize meaningful material, but are not themselves of the logical memory type—for example exercises concerned with dates-events and the names of persons. The necessary associations in such cases must be fixed by drill (see the section on Relative Values).

Gates¹³⁶ suggested as a general drill-principle: "Consider the situation which life will present and so arrange the circumstances of learning that the learner will secure experience in making those reactions which will be demanded." In history this demand usually seems to take the form of identification of paired phrases, *e.g.*, dates with events, and persons with their most important lifework.

The usual principles of drill apply to such history materials, except that speed is not a particularly important factor. The laws of repetition of correct models with attention, distributed practice periods, the detecting of mistakes early in the process, the avoidance of repetition in a fixed series (unless the series as a whole is to be fixed), and cumulative drill on materials as new items are added unit by unit—all are applicable to history. The number of items added at a given time should be small, since amount has a significant relationship to retention.¹³⁷ A common error is the attempt to drill on material which has not yet been thoroughly understood.

Gates¹³⁸ rules for distributed practice are as follows: (1) overlearning at the beginning, (2) review within forty-eight hours, (3) review a week later, (4) again three weeks later, (5) again two months later, (6) followed by other reviews at intervals of five months or more.

Probably the chief criticism of the old method of drill is that no provision was made for individual difficulties. Each person drilled the same amount on all items, regardless of the fact that some of them he knew and some he did not. The modern technique of drill begins with a pre-test, and the distribution of effort in the following period depends entirely on the results of the test. Children keep a record of their own difficulties, together with the correct statement of each. They are taught *how* to drill themselves; seeing, saying, hearing, and possibly making drill cards for themselves. The graphic record of their own scores furnishes the needed incentive to effort in practice.¹³⁹

Testing is subject to some of the same laws as drill. In unit-teaching, testing is distributed throughout the learning period. The questions on the reading discussed on page 24, constituted a test, as did the discussion, and as did the various projects. All these may be classed as teaching-tests. In history they have been probably more successful than have exercises of the measuring-type, chiefly because of the difficulties encountered in reaching any agreement as to (1) what constitutes the *elements* of the subject, and as to (2) the nature of the learning process in the middle grades.¹⁴⁰

As might be expected, the information-type of test is more generally accepted by the field than are tests purporting to measure thought, reasoning, character-judgment, etc. The items usually included in such tests are: persons, places, dates, events, and more recently, historical terms. The Van Wagenen tests for grades four to eight show an increase in information scores from 5.0 to 15.6, and in thought scores from 2.5 to 18, with decided sex differences.

The "old-fashioned essay type" of examination, against which so much criticism has been leveled¹⁴¹ was never widely used in history in the middle grades. Therefore, the "new-type tests" have been accepted in these grades without much controversy. A difficulty in their use is that, because of lack of standardization of materials, organization and objectives, suitable tests are at present available only for the entire field or for large blocks of the field. In general, it has been left for teachers to devise their own tests on their own units.¹⁴² The devising of adequate "comprehension tests" is particularly desirable and particularly difficult.

THE ORGANIZATION AND GENERALIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE

By the time that the children have completed the "assimilation step" they have gone so far in analyzing the unit of study, that they have lost sight of the whole. That they should regain their perspective with reference to the unit is very desirable. Koffka¹⁴³ says, "Learning consists essentially in an organization of the whole procedure." Pyle¹⁴⁴ says, "The most significant aspect of memory is organization." And John Dewey¹⁴⁵ agrees, "The growth is through logical organization of subject matter."

The usual means employed with middle grade children in order to achieve a synthesis, are summaries and outlines. Newlun's¹⁴⁶ experiment in the use of summaries showed that "most children—can be taught to summarize in history by devoting a portion of their class period to this training for a period of twelve weeks or less— Summarizing in history, if properly developed and used, can improve the achievement in history."

The result of a year's work in teaching fourth grade children to make outlines was reported to the writer by Miss Nelle Moore, then of the State Teachers' College at Oshkosh, Wisconsin. She reported that by the end of the year 25% of the children were able to make acceptable outlines independently, while the rest of the group worked with the teacher in the making of a coöperative outline.

Morrison¹⁴⁷ believes that an additional reaction member of the learning cycle is needed to complete the learning process. He would have it consist of the interpretation of the entire story (the "recitation step"). This step includes the important generalizations¹⁴⁸ brought out in the discussion of the story. It may be carried on as a "socialized recitation."

CONCLUSION

The studies briefly summarized in this article furnish only occasional guidance in teaching. Between them are great gaps in which the processes of teaching must depend on theory or empiricism.

Nevertheless, it is encouraging that experiments and investigations as to children's learning are constantly increasing in number and scope. Their conclusions, while fragmentary, are nevertheless furnishing a solid foundation for better teaching procedures in the future.

¹⁴³ Margaret W. Curti, *Child Psychology*, (Longmans Green & Co., 1931), p. 172.

¹⁴⁴ R. S. Woodworth, *Dynamic Psychology*, (Columbia Univ. Press, 1918),

¹⁴⁵ Bertrand Russell, *Education and the Good Life*, (Boni and Liveright, 1926), pp. 125-126.

¹⁴⁶ Bertrand Russell, *Op. Cit.*, p. 42.

¹⁴⁷ See footnote 139.

¹⁴⁸ William C. Trow, *Educational Psychology*, (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), p. 37.

¹⁴⁹ W. F. Book, *Learning How to Study and Work Effectively*, (Ginn and Company, 1926), p. 309.

¹⁵⁰ Naomi Norsworthy and Mary T. Whitley, *The Psychology of Childhood*, (The Macmillan Co., 1918), p. 116.

¹⁵¹ For a discussion of the stimulus-response theory, see J. F. Dashiell, *Fundamentals of Objective Psychology* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928), pp. 34-36.

¹⁵² H. C. Morrison, *Op. Cit.*, p. 81.

¹⁵³ *Language and Thought of the Child*, p. 132.

¹⁵⁴ Harry L. Hollingworth, *Mental Growth and Decline*, p. 129.

¹⁵⁵ See H. C. Morrison, *Op. Cit.*, p. 81.

¹⁵⁶ M. G. Kelty, *Teaching American History in the Middle Grades of the Elementary School*, (Ginn and Co., 1928), pp. 52 ff.

¹⁵⁷ From Walter P. Percival, "A Study of the Causes and Subjects of School Failure." Ch. 19 in Bagley and Kyle's *California Curriculum Study*, (Univ. of California, Berkeley, 1926).

¹⁵⁸ *Mental Tests*, (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926), pp. 346, 352.

¹⁵⁹ F. L. Goodenough and J. E. Anderson, *Experimental Child Study*, (Century Co., 1931), p. 24.

¹⁶⁰ F. N. Freeman, *How Children Learn*, (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917), p. 178.

¹⁶¹ Daniel Starch, *Educational Psychology*, (Macmillan Co., Rev. Ed., 1927), p. 496.

¹⁶² H. L. Hollingworth, *Op. Cit.*

¹⁶³ F. N. Freeman, *Psychology of the Common Branches*, pp. 142-143.

¹⁶⁴ Homer B. Reed, *Psychology of Elementary School Subjects*, (Ginn and Co., 1927), p. 378.

¹⁶⁵ C. H. Judd and G. T. Buswell, *Silent Reading: A Study of the Various Types*. Supplementary Educational Monograph. No. 23, University of Chicago School of Education, (1926).

¹⁶⁶ John N. Washburne, "The Use of Questions in Social Science Materials." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XX:321, (May 1929).

¹⁶⁷ See W. F. Book, *Learning How to Study and Work Effectively*, (Ginn and Co., 1926), Ch. 15.

¹⁶⁸ Arthur I. Gates, *Psychology for Students of Education*, (Rev. Ed. Macmillan Co., 1930), p. 336.

¹⁶⁹ *Psychology of Secondary Education*, (Ginn & Co., 1927), p. 18.

¹⁷⁰ Goddard, H. H., *Psychology of Normal and Subnormal*, (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1919), pp. 257-260.

¹⁷¹ Earl Barnes, *Op. Cit.*, Vol. I, p. 89.

¹⁷² M. G. Kelty, *Time Expressions Comprehended by Children of the Elementary School*. (Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Univ. of Chicago Libraries), 1924.

¹⁷³ Public Schools, Wilmette, Illinois.

¹⁷⁴ G. Stanley Hall, *Some Aspects of Child Life and Education*. (Ginn & Co., Ed. of 1907), pp. 1-52.

¹⁷⁵ Earl Barnes, *Op. Cit.*, Vol. II, p. 60.

¹⁷⁶ Will G. Chambers, "How Words Get Meaning." *Pedagogical Seminary*, 11:30-50, (1904).

¹⁷⁷ Flora Scott and Garry C. Myers, "Children's Empty and Erroneous Concepts of the Commonplace." *Journal of Educational Research*, 8:327-332, (1923).

¹⁷⁸ H. Meltzer, *Children's Social Concepts*, (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925).

¹⁷⁹ Adelaide M. Ayer, *Some Difficulties in Elementary School History*, (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926).

¹⁸⁰ *Language and Thought of the Child*, pp. 129-130.

¹⁸¹ *How We Think*, p. 130.

¹⁸² Harry L. Hollingworth, *Mental Growth and Decline*, p. 376.

¹⁸³ Charles H. Judd, *Psychology of Secondary Education*, p. 199.

¹⁸⁴ Charles H. Judd, *Psychology of Secondary Education*, p. 199.

- ¹¹⁸ Charles H. Judd, *Psychology of Social Institutions*, (Macmillan Co., 1926), p. 209.
- ¹¹⁹ John Dewey, *How We Think*, p. 130.
- ¹²⁰ To be published as part of the report.
- ¹²¹ *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 24:335-349, (Dec., 1931).
- ¹²² For example, see Mary G. Kelty, *Teaching American History in the Middle Grades of the Elementary School*, Part II, (Ginn & Co., 1928).
- ¹²³ Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History*, Chapters 8 to 10.
- ¹²⁴ For a more complete list see Annette Glick, "Making History Real," *Historical Outlook*, 18:29, 64, (1927). For an investigation as to the value of pictures, see Cecil Ross, "The Value of Pictures in Teaching History," *Journal of Education Research*, 17:113, (1928).
- ¹²⁵ F. N. Freeman, *Visual Education* (University of Chicago Press, 1924), p. 70.
- ¹²⁶ C. O. Mathews, *Grade Placement of Curriculum Materials in the Social Studies*, (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1926).
- ¹²⁷ Daniel C. Knowlton and J. Warren Tilton, *Motion Pictures in History Teaching*, (Yale University Press, 1929), p. 87.
- ¹²⁸ Ben D. Wood and F. N. Freeman, *Motion Pictures in the Class Room*, (Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1929).
- ¹²⁹ *How We Think*, p. 190.
- ¹³⁰ John Dewey, *How We Think*, p. 38.
- ¹³¹ Inga Olla Helseth, *Children's Thinking*, (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926).
- ¹³² Quoted by Charles W. Waddle, *An Introduction to Child Psychology*, (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918), p. 203.
- ¹³³ "Education on the Air," *Second Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio*, (Ohio State University, 1931).
- ¹³⁴ Florence C. Fox, "Children's Preferences in Radio Programs," *Circular No. 17* (1930), United States Bureau of Education.
- ¹³⁵ Sarah Jane Bassett, *Retention of History in the Sixth, Seventh and Eighth Grades*, (Johns Hopkins Press, 1928).
- ¹³⁶ Arthur I. Gates, *Op. Cit.*, p. 337.
- ¹³⁷ Wm. Pyle, *Psychology of Learning*, (Warwick and York, 1921), p. 129.
- ¹³⁸ Arthur I. Gates, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 468-469.
- ¹³⁹ Thomas S. Kirby, *Practice in the Case of School Children*, (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1913).
- ¹⁴⁰ See the discussion of difficulties by Truman L. Kelley, "The Objective Measurement of the Outcomes of the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, XXI:66-72, (Feb., 1930).
- ¹⁴¹ W. J. Osburn, *Are We Making Good at Teaching History?* (Public School Publishing Co., 1926).
- ¹⁴² See W. H. Burton, *Supervision of Elementary Subjects*, pp. 430-437.
- ¹⁴³ *The Growth of the Mind*, p. 176.
- ¹⁴⁴ *Psychological Principles Applied to Teaching*, (Warwick and York, 1921), p. 118.
- ¹⁴⁵ *How We Think*, p. 39.
- ¹⁴⁶ Chester O. Newlun, *Teaching Children to Summarize in Fifth Grade History*, (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1930).
- ¹⁴⁷ H. C. Morrison, *The practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, (Univ. of Chicago Press, 1926), pp. 328-336.
- ¹⁴⁸ Since teachers themselves have difficulty in seeing possible generalizations to be drawn, the following from Neal Billings, *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum*, (Warwick and York, 1929), Ch. V., are quoted to serve as examples:
- Efficient methods of transportation stimulate agricultural prosperity.
 - Industrial regions are in large measure dependent on the farmers of other and non-industrial lands for their food, raw materials, and markets.
 - Specialization has been made possible partly by the application of machinery to industry.
 - Trade and transportation tend to follow natural highways.
 - The growth of large-scale industry has brought about a wider gap between employers and employees.
 - "Free land" has exerted an influence upon the distribution of wealth in the United States.
 - The first settlements in newer countries are almost invariably made near the mouths of rivers.
 - The invention, use, and manufacture of machinery have caused the growth of cities. (Other factors given also.)
 - War is often followed by changes in boundaries.
 - Economic discontent is a main source of civil strife.
 - Nations impelled with a desire to secure markets gradually absorb weak countries.
 - Newness of country has something to do with producing uniformity.
 - A common law aids coöperation.

The Study of Local History as a School Hobby

By WALTER H. MOHR
George School, George School P.O., Pennsylvania

The value of local history as a field for study and research is very generally appreciated. State and local history is being taught in many schools. Some of this work is valuable, but much of it is merely the study of uncritical materials in books which have been hastily gathered to fit these courses.

Departmental discussions brought out the necessity for studying local history in a community rich in history and tradition. A crowded curriculum, however, prevented the realization of such an ideal. It was finally decided that this subject might be

presented as a project to be worked out by a school hobby group.

A small but interested group of boys along with some members of the faculty determined to explore the possibilities of this subject. Of the student members, one of the boys is preparing to major in archeology when he enters college; several come from communities where there are splendid opportunities for the study of local history; one of the boys has been interested in research projects for some time, and the others joined because of their interest in the subject of history.

It was decided that the first work to be undertaken should deal primarily with historical materials available near the school. To carry out this idea, a former member of the faculty, one of whose hobbies is local history, presented the opportunities for the study of such materials. It was seen at once that minutes of the meetings would have to be kept so that projects which could not be undertaken immediately, would be on record for future reference.

One of the first undertakings was to get some idea of the history of the immediate vicinity of the school. This led to a study of the history of the estate from which land was purchased for the school campus. In this study it was found that there were evidences of an "Indian field" on the lower campus. The search for this has been a very interesting experience for the boys. It was also discovered that a part of the campus woods had once been an amusement park.

A movement for establishing the silk industry swept through the county in which the school is located during the early part of the nineteenth century. One of the cocooneries was situated very near the school property and the boys have practically succeeded in locating the site of this building. In this they have received the very hearty coöperation of the editor of a local paper. During the coming year it is hoped that by some excavations the tentative location can be verified.

The school is comparatively young so we are able to draw upon members of the first faculty and the original student body for talks dealing with the beginning of the school. Accurate records are being kept of all these talks so that they may be used for any projected history of the institution.

Several of the boys have been interested in work-

ing on the biography of a prominent citizen of the community, also a former member of the School Committee of Management, who went to California as a Forty Niner. In this project they received the very friendly coöperation of a son of this man. He put at their disposal papers and diaries which were both interesting and valuable as a source for some of the history of the community.

The two towns nearest the school are rich in Revolutionary history and tradition. Much can be done in working on the various projects which these villages present. One of these villages is celebrating the anniversary of its founding next year. This will cause much interest to focus on some of the important items of its local history.

Certain definite values are showing themselves. There is a sense of reality to the studies made which causes the boys to be greatly interested in all phases of what they are doing. The results of the work can be presented in both the school paper and also in the local papers; the development of a leisure time hobby is a real value resulting from these little enterprises. The community is interested in the work and finds another point of contact with the work of the school, and finally an excellent opportunity is presented for teaching in an effective manner how history is really written.

This description of our work is not presented as being anything startling or unique. We realize that the work will have to cover a much broader field eventually. We feel that the study of local history presents a very real value as a leisure time activity. The materials for such study are often near at hand; there is always interest in the results of such studies, and at times opportunities present themselves for making contributions to the larger fields of state and national history.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, Ed.D., *Harvard University*

SYLLABUS IN TEACHING SOCIAL SCIENCE

A. Curtis Wilgus has prepared a syllabus on *The Teaching of History in the Junior and Senior High Schools* which is for sale at the George Washington University Book Store, Washington, D.C., at seventy-five cents per copy. It contains outlines of 126 lectures on the subject, together with extensive references to recent books and articles in the field.

LOCAL HISTORY WRITTEN BY PUPILS

In connection with the Massachusetts Tercentenary Celebration in 1930, the children of Grades IV, V, and VI in the schools of Lynn, Massachusetts, began the

preparation of a series of stories about the history of their community. Under the direction of Helen J. Piper, supervisor of Grades IV, V, and VI, and Mabel A. French, supervisor of art, the stories written by children throughout the city were collected, revised, and arranged in order. Interested local groups and individuals coöperated in the preparation and revision of the stories; pupils in the schools' art classes prepared illustrations. High school classes aided in revision and typing. The "members of the School Committee were so well impressed by the experiment that they voted to have the finished product printed in textbook form for permanent use in the grades." The re-

sulting volume, *History Stories of Lynn*, is an attractive book of 255 pages representing real pupil achievement and having unusual utility in classrooms.

NATIONAL SURVEY MONOGRAPH

One of the most useful recent publications on the teaching of the social studies is the monograph in the report of the National Survey of Education which deals with *Instruction in the Social Studies*. Prepared by William G. Kimmel, it is a survey and analysis of curriculum changes and teaching practices developed since 1925 in a selected group of secondary schools. The ten chapters of the monograph are: (1) The Social Studies in Secondary Education, (2) Objectives in the Social Studies, (3) Social Studies Programs in Junior and Senior High Schools, (4) Analysis of Junior High School Courses, (5) Analysis of Senior High School Courses, (6) Principles for Selection and Organization of Content, (7) Adaptation of Materials to Meet Pupil Needs, (8) Methods and Procedures in Teaching, (9) Measuring the Learning Product, and (10) Summary and Conclusion. The chapters, though necessarily brief, are admirably fair and balanced, and present a concise summary of contemporary achievements, trends, and difficulties in the field it covers.

The monograph (Bulletin, 1932, No. 17; Monograph No. 21) may be secured from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., at ten cents per copy.

CURRICULUM IN THE CANAL ZONE

A *Manual of Information for Teachers*, dealing with "The Social Studies in the Junior and Senior High Schools of the Canal Zone" was issued by the Division of Schools, Panama Canal Zone, in April, 1933. The manual was prepared by a committee of teachers from Cristobal and Balboa, of which Roger C. Hackett, of Cristobal Senior High School, was chairman. The curriculum for the twelve grades is briefly outlined as follows:

Grade	Course
I.	Home and Neighbors
II.	Community Life and Work
III.	Peoples of Other Lands
IV.	The New World: Panama and the Canal—one-half year
	Life in Distant Lands—one-half year
V.	Life in the United States: Geography and History
VI.	Early Civilization and Modern Life in Europe: Geography and History
VII.	Introduction to American Civilization—one-half year
	Changing Civilizations of the Modern World—one-half year
VIII.	History of American Civilization, Government and Culture (full year)
	Vocational Guidance (full year, one period per week)
IX.	World History

- X. Latin-American History (full year)
- Commercial Geography (one-half year)
- XI. United States History
- XII. Problems of American Democracy

FELLOWSHIPS FOR FOREIGN STUDY

A limited number of fellowships and assistantships for study abroad are available to qualified graduates of American colleges under the auspices of the Institute of International Education. Copies of a bulletin describing the existing opportunities may be secured for twenty-five cents from the Secretary, Student Bureau, Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

LIST OF SPEAKERS

A nation-wide list of American scholars willing to speak without honoraria is available through the courtesy of the Foreign Policy Association, 18 East 41st Street, New York City. "In an attempt to give more accurate information on the fundamental economic factors responsible for present chaotic conditions, they will accept unpaid engagements to address interested groups on three vital subjects: International Indebtedness, the Gold Standard, and Trade Barriers."

COLLEGE BOARD EXAMINATIONS

At the meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association held in Boston on November 4, 1933, the report of a Committee on College Board Examinations in American History was considered and adopted. The committee (consisting of Philip P. Chase, Chairman, Elsie D. Fairbanks, Norman S. McKendrick, Lawrence B. Packard, Howard E. Wilson, and David Sage), after considering the problem of College Board Examinations for a period of two years, recommended: (1) That the examination in American history consist of two parts—first a comprehensive test of the student's general knowledge in the entire field of American history, and, second, a topical or special-field paper of more detailed character intended to test the candidate's skill in handling historical material effectively; (2) That the College Board should experiment with new-type questions in Part I of the examinations; (3) That, in Part II of the examination, the student write an essay on an assigned topic within a relatively narrow field of his own choosing. Teachers and administrators interested in the problem of the College Board Examinations in American History are urged to correspond with the Chairman of the Committee, Philip P. Chase, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

NATIONAL CRISIS PAMPHLETS

The Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, announces the publication of a series of five pamphlets analyzing the recovery legislation of the special session of Congress from March to June, 1933. The series is designed for discussion groups, forums, college classes, and other interested groups. The pamphlets, on the following topics, have been prepared by Leon C. Marshall and Edmund deS. Brunner.

1. The Farm Act of 1933: Its Place in the Recovery Program
2. In Relief of Debtors (Home and Farm Owners and Railroads)
3. Unemployment and Public Works
4. The Changed Scene in Industry and Transportation
5. Funds and the Financial System

Each pamphlet is thirty-two pages long and sells for twenty-five cents; set of five, \$1.00; 20 per cent discount on twenty or more copies of a single title. Pamphlets covering the same ground will soon be available for junior and senior high schools.

E.R.L.

A NEW AMERICAN HISTORY

Harper and Bros. announce the publication (probably in January, 1934) of *America: Its History and People*, a senior high school text in American history by Harold U. Faulkner, Smith College, and Tyler Kepner, Director of Social Studies, Brookline, Massachusetts. The text is to be a "unit organization with the following divisions of subject matter: America—A Part of the British Empire; The Growth of Democracy in America; The Industrialization of America; Cultural and Social America; America as a World Power; Today's Problems for Americans."

SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION

The annual fall meeting of the Southern California Social Science Association was held at Los Angeles City Hall on November 18, 1933. The morning session was devoted to a series of sectional meetings on geography, curriculum revision, budgets and efficiency, the work of the City Council, and the municipal research library. At a general luncheon meeting the address of welcome was given by Mayor Frank L. Shaw. Luncheon speakers were Dean Emery Olsen of the School of Government, University of Southern California, who spoke on "The Necessity of New Educational Interest in Government," and State Senator Herbert C. Jones, who spoke on "Crucial Facts Concerning Educational Legislation in the State of California."

C. R. I.

GEORGIA BICENTENNIAL PUBLICATIONS

Among the publications sponsored by the Georgia Library Commission in connection with the observance of the Georgia bicentennial are the following:

1. Anderson and Others, *Georgia: A Pageant of the Years*. Savannah: Little House Publishing Co., \$2.50.
2. Evans, L. B., *All about Georgia*. New York: American Book Co., \$0.50.
3. Knight, L. L., *Georgia Bicentennial Memoirs* (3 vols.). Brunswick: L. L. Knight, \$6.50 each.
4. Scott, A. L., *Georgia History as Told in Historical Playlets*. Athens: A. L. Scott, \$0.75.
5. Stewart, C. P., *Booklet Dramatizing Three Famous Indian Legends*. Atlanta: C. P. Stewart, \$0.50.

TEACHING GUIDES FOR AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVICS

Thais M. Plaisted of the Alexander Hamilton High School, Los Angeles, California, has prepared a *Syllabus* and a book of *Cases and Projects for an Integrated Course in American History and Civics*. The *Syllabus* is arranged in six chronological sections; the sections are separated into topics, and each topic is arranged in a series of sub-topics, one or more of which is suitable for a day's class work. For each section there are extensive outlines and reading references. The book of *Cases and Projects* follows the general organization of the *Syllabus*. For each section there is a series of "cases": a case is the statement of a historical and civic generalization, with suggested "steps in proof" of it, involving questions and answers. Each case has its "conclusion," its "corollaries," and suggestions for projects growing out of it.

The books are mimeographed and substantially bound, of about two hundred pages each. They sell for \$3.00 each, and may be secured by addressing the author at 3819 West 28th Street, Los Angeles, California.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY

Ginn and Company announce the publication, during January, of *A Political Geography of the British Empire*, prepared by C. B. Fawcett, Professor of Economic and Regional Geography in the University of London. The book is to deal with a wide variety of the problems of the people of the Empire which are affected by geographical influences.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION REPORT

The most striking sections of the last report of the Rockefeller Foundation deal with the program of research in the social sciences, inaugurated by the Foundation a few years ago. Certainly the "need for scientific attack on the problem of maladjustment is unmistakable: that attack this Foundation has under way." During the past year nearly \$3,000,000 was distributed among schools and agencies in many lands in the interest of this enterprise.

D. A. C.

AN ECONOMICS TEXT

Harper and Bros. is to publish in January *Our Economic World*, a senior high school textbook in economics by Willard E. Atkins and Arthur Wubnig, both of New York University.

FOOTBALL FOR HISTORY REVIEW

Robert Wyatt, of the Tappan Intermediate School, Detroit, has developed a novel device for review work in history classes, based on a football game. Two teams are chosen, eleven on each side. A quarterback is selected to captain each team and call the plays, which consist of questions asked during the game. The questions are divided into three groups by a committee of students. The hardest questions are forward passes, and if answered correctly, give the team with the ball five yards on a blackboard gridgraph. The second

group of questions, less difficult, are end-runs and may give a gain of three yards. The easiest questions are line bucks, and count two yards if answered correctly. Ten yards must be gained in four attempts or the opposing team gets the ball. The quarterback lines the members of his team in any way that seems advantageous and selects the plays as he thinks best, depending on downs and who is to carry the ball. By substitutions during the game all class members are brought into the review.

C. C. B.

SEMINAR IN CUBA

To the Editor, Historical Outlook

May we, through your columns, draw the attention of your readers to the third annual Seminar in the Caribbean, to be held in Cuba from March 7 to 14, 1934, under the auspices of The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America?

We believe that, especially in view of recent developments, it is of increasing importance that a growing

number of Americans should have insight into the problems, culture, and lives of the Cuban people. The Seminar in Cuba, like our annual Seminar in Mexico, is designed to bring its members into contact with the plans, projects, and beliefs of the leaders of all sectors of opinion in the country.

The Seminar will begin with lectures on shipboard en route from New York to Havana. The program in Cuba will include lectures, round table discussions, and field trips into the interior. The faculty of the Seminar, leading its discussions and perfecting its contacts with Cuba and Cubans, will include Dr. Ernest Gruening, Miss Elizabeth Wallace, Dr. Chester Lloyd Jones, and Mr. Hubert C. Herring.

Applications and requests for detailed information should be addressed to:

Mr. Hubert C. Herring, Executive Director
The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America
112 East 19th Street, New York, N.Y.

Book Reviews

Edited by PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, *Columbia University*

The Lost Empires of the Itzaes and Mayas. By T. A. Willard. A. H. Clark Co., Glendale, Calif., 1932. 449 pp. \$6.00.

This handsome, abundantly illustrated book does not fall into any of the ordinary classifications. It is an attempt to recreate colloquially and in great detail the history of Yucatan before the arrival of Europeans. It is also something of a guidebook to modern Yucatan and the sites of archaeological investigation there. It goes behind the archaeological evidence to cite and use the legendary pre-history of the Itzaes and Mayas. In an effort to excite interest in and respect for an early American civilization, it employs many literary devices of one sort and another and is more addicted to superlatives and absolutes than an ordinary work of historiography. Repetition is used for emphasis. Quotation from a few source materials, particularly Bishop Diego de Landa's history of Yucatan, is abundant, but the usual apparatus of attribution for the citations and of bibliographical guidance is not provided. There are about 80 illustrations, many of them photographs, but as some of the latter have been retouched it is not always possible to satisfy one's self as to their usefulness.

Perhaps back of all the reader's difficulties in estimating this book is the fact that while the author disclaims supporting any particular theory, he does pursue a rather assured course through what is well known to be highly controversial and fragmentary historical evidence. It would not be unfair to say that he draws into his narratives all kinds of evidence which can contribute colour and magnificence to his picture without systematic warning either as to its relative validity or the extent of scholarly controversy concerning it.

In all, it seems best to describe this volume as a guide-book by an enthusiast of twenty-five years residence near the ruins he describes written to arouse interest in the mighty relics of an impressive American civilization and to provide an introduction to the historical speculations (not yet synthesized) which they have awakened. Intending or would-be visitors can get an idea of what they may see at the great city-sites, notably Chichen-Itza and Uxmal. With the caution that Mr. Willard's accounts must be to a large degree hypothetical, they may also read a re-creation of how men lived in them.—B.

The History of the Balkan Peninsula from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Ferdinand Schevill. Revised Edition, with the Collaboration of Wesley M. Gewehr, Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1933. 614 pp. \$5.00.

This is still the best history of the Balkans. The first 503 pages are a reprint of the 1922 edition. The last 75 pages are wholly new and are devoted to the internal and foreign affairs of the six Balkan States since 1922.

The final chapter discusses the desirability and possibility of a Balkan federation, which would curb the nationalism that makes the Balkans one of the political sore-spots of the world. The authors describe five obstacles to federation, which are connected with exaggerated nationalism and imperialism. (1) A successful federation would require a redrawing of Bulgaria's post-war boundaries, but Greece, Jugo-Slavia and Rumania maintain that this is not a subject for discussion. (2) The ill-will provoked by the mistreatment of minorities in the various states might be remedied by establishing plural sovereignty, whereby minorities

would tax themselves to maintain schools, churches and such other cultural agencies as they desire. But this would require a relaxation of the current inflamed nationalism and the absolute conception of sovereignty. (3) The present economic nationalism, which aims at self-sufficiency through high tariffs, may be relaxed as a consequence of the further intensification of the economic misery that has followed the post-war treaties and the application of ideas of economic selfishness. (4) Although in each country a small group of intelligentsia favor federation, the great mass of people are impassioned nationalists, fostering the narrow nationalism indoctrinated by the schools, churches and press. (5) The final obstacle to federation is the imperialist rivalry of France and Italy in the Balkans. France, which has alliances with the Little Entente, as well as Poland and Belgium, opposes any revision of existing treaties. Italy, which has a protectorate over Albania since 1926 and a pact of friendship with Greece and Turkey since 1928, resents French efforts to dominate the Balkans. This rivalry impedes federative efforts.

C. C. ECKHARDT

University of Colorado

England's Elizabeth. By Milton Waldman. Houghton-Mifflin Co., Boston and New York, 1933. 276 pp. \$3.50.

When so many biographies of Queen Elizabeth have appeared it is perhaps a tribute to Mr. Waldman that he has been able to produce yet another which can be read with enjoyment and profit. It is thoroughly authentic in that it is based in large part on source material, and the author when speculating on motives, conversations and the like informs his readers that he is doing so.

As a biography, however, it has certain definite limitations. In the first place it stops short at 1588 without a word of explanation as to why the fifteen most Elizabethan years of the reign are left untreated. It deals so largely with the political and diplomatic maneuverings of the Virgin Queen that at times it tends to become a history of those intricacies rather than a work devoted to the life of a central figure. It approaches the psychology of Elizabeth so much from the political angle that her many-sided genius is stated rather than appraised or elucidated. Finally the ramifications of the various plots, intrigues and movements are followed so far afield that Elizabeth herself is often out of the spot-light.

In fact it is not as a biography that this book is best appreciated, but instead as an essay on the theme, "England was Elizabeth's one true love." It is from this point of view that an effort is made to understand the queen's life, her tortuous diplomacy, her many courtships, her governmental policies. But the theme is not new, nor perhaps, does it need a book written to prove it.

On the other hand the book is well, even charmingly written, skillfully organized, and dramatically related. Its judgments and interpretations are intelligent and sound, its characterizations of minor figures

terse and sharp, its analysis of complicated episodes simple and clear. It may not depict Elizabeth as a person but it gives a very fine portrait of her as a patriot.

CHARLES WOOLSEY COLE

Columbia University

Colonial Hispanic America: A History. By Charles Edward Chapman, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933. 405 pp. \$2.40.

Professor Chapman's purpose in writing *Colonial Hispanic America* was to provide a suitable textbook for students of Latin American history. Bearing this in mind one cannot but pronounce the result entirely successful. The author has prepared not only an excellent and thorough text for students but also a pleasant and interesting piece of reading for anybody.

The material is presented directly in a clear, fast-moving style which makes it easily comprehensible. To the casual reader it might seem that the author has included more material than was necessary to give an accurate picture of the subject. It is true that Professor Chapman has included a welter of small details along with his more important factual matter, but when it is remembered that his intention is to instruct students, some of whom may want to specialize in this particular field of history, this mass of information seems in no way superfluous.

The book starts with the years immediately preceding the discovery of America and deals thoroughly with Latin American history up to and including the revolutions in the early Nineteenth Century which rid the colonies of Spanish and Portuguese domination. In the main the book is extremely accurate. Lack of space precludes the possibility of discussing a few points which might be questioned by some authorities.

The casual reader will find that he can read through this history rapidly but for the student there are copious and well selected footnotes. Professor Chapman's bibliography, too, is deserving of comment. Unlike most bibliographies the author not only gives the full title and customary information about the books which he has used in reference, but also a summary of these works. This would be extremely beneficial to the student desirous of investigating some particular phase of the subject more fully and would save him much floundering about through chapter after chapter of unnecessary material. The illustrations and maps employed in this book are adequate if not particularly unusual.

Professor Chapman's book comes at a time when there are on the market several books dealing with the same general subject. It must be said of this one, however, that the author has treated the subject with originality and has borrowed far less than other current writers on the topic.—H. B. M.

French Travellers in the United States, 1765-1932. A Bibliography. By Frank Monaghan. New York, The New York Public Library, 1933. xxii, 114 pp.

The writer of social history has long been accustomed to quote from the pages of foreign travelers,

mainly because the natives of any particular region infrequently recorded just what the social historian would like to know. But too often the same source is used by historians over and over again—Arthur Young for France, De Tocqueville and James Bryce for America, as if no other materials of equal or even superior value were available. Fortunately for the student of America and of Franco-American relations a guide to a large body of literature has been prepared by Frank Monaghan in his *French Travellers in the United States, 1765-1932*. It contains over 1,800 entries, arranged alphabetically, and includes the observations of every type of traveler from the hop, skip, and jump variety to those who have lived here for many years.

"This bibliography," writes Mr. Monaghan in his introduction, "is an attempt to gather together all the writing on the United States by French authors who have had the opportunity of actual contact with and observation of life . . . in America. It . . . is meant to include all writings in which the influence of their travels and observations is expressly stated or in which that influence can be definitely traced." The materials here listed include books, pamphlets, reprints from periodicals, and in a few instances manuscripts of unusual interest. The eighteenth and early nineteenth century travelers appear to have interested Mr. Monaghan particularly, if we are to judge by the enjoyable notes accompanying the items. The compiler has also thoughtfully added a chronological list of trav-

elers. Future students of Franco-American relations will have their labors considerably lightened because of this bibliography.

MICHAEL KRAUS

College of the City of New York

A History of the Far East in Modern Times. By Harold M. Vinacke. F. S. Crofts & Co., New York, 1933. xiv, 503 pp. \$5.00.

A revision of Dr. Vinacke's *History of the Far East in Modern Times*, originally published in 1928, was highly desirable, mainly on account of the events that have taken place in eastern Asia in the last two years. The earlier edition was the most solid and dependable of works of like nature, and what changes and additions have been introduced have been done competently. The alterations involved the replacement of the original chapters on "The Modernization of China" and "The Far Eastern Republic of Siberia" by chapters on "The Nationalist Revolution" and "Russia in the Far East," together with the rewriting of many other passages and the adding of material pertinent to the recent conflict between China and Japan.

The work, however, is still not wholly satisfactory. The emphasis throughout is on politico-economic features, on which western nations and peoples have put their stamp, whereas the life of the Chinese, Japanese, and Koreans is but lightly sketched in. No account, for instance, is given of the long and honorable succession of scholarly works produced by the Chinese in

Just published

THE ORIGINS OF CONTEMPORARY CIVILIZATION

A Foundation Course in Social Science

By ALICE N. GIBBONS, *Head of the Social Science Department,
East High School, Rochester, New York*

This new Directed Study Guide, with its accompanying Testbook, provides a fresh and revitalizing approach to the study of Ancient and Medieval History. Organized on the unit-problem plan, it centers work around social objectives, provides abundant reading references, and furnishes a rich variety of study activities. Though the course is a new departure, it carries a guarantee of success, for it was developed and repeatedly tested in the author's classrooms in one of the most progressive public school systems in the country. For further details send for circular #524.

GINN AND COMPANY

Boston New York Chicago Atlanta Dallas Columbus San Francisco

the last ninety years, nor of the interesting development of the short story in China, nor of the recent achievements in archaeology on the continent and in Japan. Even so important an institution in Chinese life as the secret societies, and their influence on domestic events, is omitted save in the treatment of the Boxer episode. It is a pity, too, that someone with an elementary knowledge of the Chinese language did not assist the author in his Romanization of Chinese terms and proper names. It would have saved him from writing *Hsüeh T'sai* for *Hsiu Ts'ai* (p. 7), *Kwantung* for *Kwangtung* (pp. 62, 200), and *Kwantun* for *Kwantung* (p. 370), etc. The work of Japanese Buddhist missionary organizations on the continent likewise is not dealt with, nor many of the significant activities of the boards administering the returned Boxer indemnity funds. As well as Dr. Vinacke appears to know the earlier history of Chinese and Japanese religious institutions, he involves himself in such a conflict as the assertion that "the Chinese have never understood denominationalism or appreciated the necessity of it" (p. 313), and his quotation from Bryan, *Japan from Within*, "Sectarianism in Christianity does not puzzle the Japanese much, as he is accustomed to it in *Shinto* and Buddhism" (p. 339). Bryan is right; in like manner the Chinese are accustomed to sectarian differences.

The book is well illustrated with a series of six maps, though no attempt has been made to bring them up to date. Peking is still Peking and Manchuria Manchuria. The lists of selected readings provided at the end of each chapter have caught up with 1933, although an occasional illuminating document, such as Dr. Arthur W. Hummel's translation, *Autobiography of a Chinese Historian* (1931), has not been added. It should also be noted that the titles given are still works in English only.

L. C. GOODRICH

Columbia University

Andrew Jackson The Border Captain. By Marquis James. Indianapolis. Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1933. 461 pp. \$3.75.

The heroic figure of Andrew Jackson has attracted many a painter and his vivid life has been the ambition of many a biographer. Since 1817 when Reid and Eaton essayed the task, a variety of others including Amos Kendall, James Parton, and John S. Bassett, have tried their skill. Gradually a large body of material has been pieced together, and the Jackson papers sometimes scattered, part in Blair's hands, and part lost, have been brought together by the recent discovery of what presumably is the last missing group. Marquis James had an ample, well arranged mass of evidence prepared for him.

The story he tells in this first volume deals with Jackson's life until he was fifty-four (1767-1821), and carries him to the end of his military career. A second volume will treat of his political triumphs just then barely dreamed of. The story which the writer tells so vividly is well known. No American ever had a more colorful career nor one which arouses such per-

petual interest. Jackson was a nervous lover of action, careless of the consequences, substituting emotion for reason and despising caution. What Jackson desired to do was the best thing to do and he carried it out regardless. And he tried almost everything, lawyer, prosecutor, judge, congressman, senator, general, governor, trader, land-speculator, duelist,* horse-racer, gambler; perhaps he might bear other titles but after all they would not give a more vivid idea of versatility. He was typical of his day and region, for it was a fearless, heedless, and very irrational age.

Mr. James has taken his task very seriously and has validated his interesting story by a scholarly technique. He has studied the sources, he has visited all the scenes, and has collected the floating traditions. He provides us with copious notes, numerous maps, and judicious bibliography. His method is episodic, making dramatic use of exciting incidents and he quotes extensively Jackson's own word. He eschews psychological interpretation but leaves events and Jackson to speak for themselves. He renders sound judgment on disputed points such as Jackson's birthplace, which he locates in South Carolina, and is candid though sympathetic about some of Jackson's worst indiscretions. All told we can await the second volume with pleasant anticipation and in the meantime have a book that will make even unwilling students enjoy history.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania

Unified American Government. By Jeremiah S. Young and Elizabeth Young Wright. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York and London, 1933. xviii, 719 pp. \$1.75.

The authors of this senior high school textbook on government have placed their emphasis, as is illustrated in the title, upon the unity of our political organization. In the past the separation of powers theory and that of federalism have been stressed to the extent that the interrelations between federal, state, and local governments have been unduly minimized. In view of the present trend toward centralization it is particularly important that due emphasis be placed upon the unity of our political order. But the authors have not been content to show the unity merely of the American government. They have expanded their scope to include the problems of government in international relations and in our economic and social life.

After an introduction into political theory, the historical basis of our government is discussed, covering the period from the establishment of the colonies to the adoption of the Constitution. The study of the machinery of government is placed upon a functional basis. First there are considered the legislative bodies ranging from the national Congress to the township trustees. The executive and judicial functions are given similar consideration. Two chapters are devoted to international relations, the second being entirely upon the subject of world peace. The economic problems include transportation and communication, commerce, banking, agriculture and labor, while under social interests there are chapters on immigration, de-

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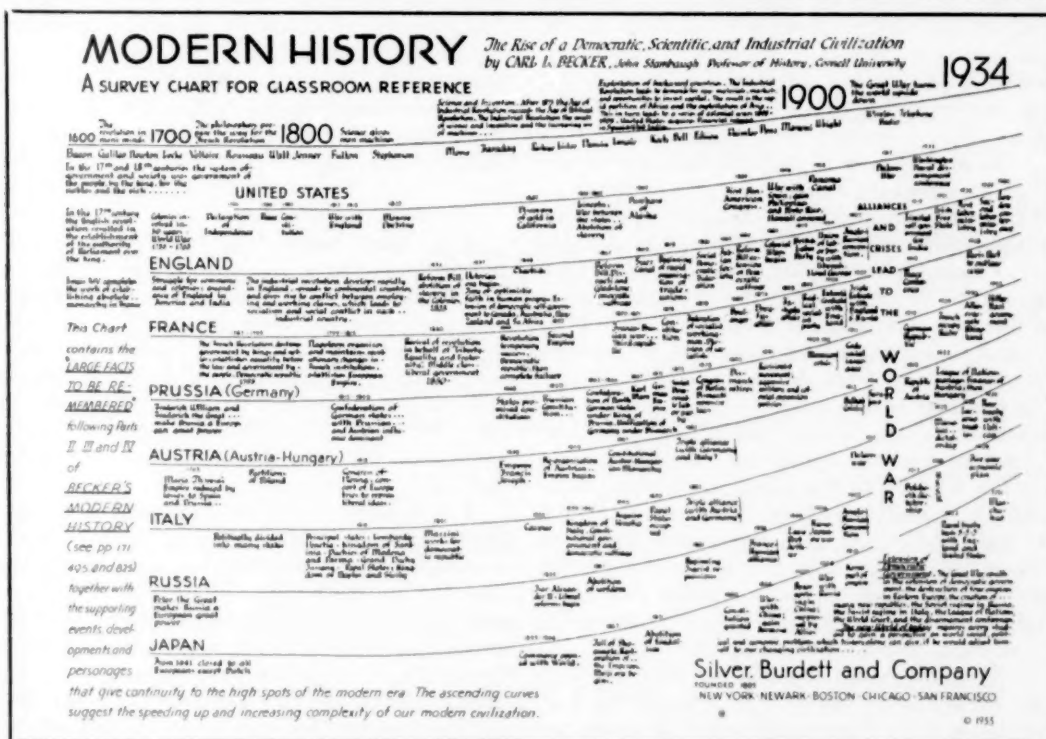
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pendent, defective, and delinquent classes, the family, recreation, and education. Study helps at the end of each chapter include a summary, word study, collateral readings, references, questions on the text, and topics for further study and report. The value of the book is enhanced by the use of a large number of illustrations and a classified bibliography.

Part II concerning the basic principles of the state and Part III classifying the types of government contain items the value of which are open to serious question. In fact it seems doubtful whether any theoretical discussion of the state, government, nation, sovereignty, and similar terms find a proper place in a high school civics book. The average high school student does not have sufficient background to grasp the full implications of these terms, and the treatment is necessarily inadequate. The result may be mere confusion, or it may be an entirely erroneous impression of the concepts. A discussion only of those theories of historical significance in the evolution of our government would seem necessary in this type of book.

Consideration of some of the terms discussed may clarify this position. In the discussion of sovereignty in a federal government, the authors recognize the existence of three groups of political scientists insisting upon state, national, or a divided sovereignty respectively. They reject the first two summarily, and the last view is dismissed by the statement that sovereignty is indivisible. They solve the problem by stating that sovereignty is held by the state back of the central and local governments. The authors probably were following the theory set forth by J. W. Burgess at the close of the last century, but by their insufficient discussion they have left the holders of sovereignty shrouded in mystery. If they insist upon discussing the matter, would it not be preferable to take the stand of some modern liberal political scientists who state that sovereignty is divisible because we see evidences of it on every hand? Or if unwilling to relinquish the older concept of an inalienable, indivisible, and ultimate sovereign, should they not admit that this must be a vague, although not necessarily less real, agreement or will of the people? Since thinkers vary widely on this question, and furthermore since it is of little practical value to an understanding of our political system, it would seem desirable to omit discussion of this phase of sovereignty.

The treatment of the terms "nation" and "nationality" is open to similar objections. In order to accommodate the subject to the space allotted it, oversimplification is found necessary. The authors state, "A nation may be defined as a population having a common language and literature, a common tradition and history, common customs, and a common consciousness of rights and wrongs, inhabiting a territory of a geographical unity. . . . Common understanding and the facility for coöperation are undoubtedly the best foundations for a nation. Kinship and language constitute this basis. . . . The nation and the state are rarely, if ever, identical. The state may be larger than the nation, or vice versa." There follows a summary of the rôle nationality has played in the formation of modern states, including the recognition of self-

determination of peoples in the Treaty of Versailles.

It appears to be assumed that a study of any nation will reveal its true boundaries. Experience does not bear out such an assumption. How large must be the group of people to constitute a nation? How is the perplexing minorities problem to be solved on this basis? When all the factors in the above definition do not point toward the same nationality, how are they to be properly weighted? It is obvious that these questions cannot be discussed in the space necessarily allotted to this subject, but they serve to illustrate that the definition is theoretical and of little value to a proper understanding of United States government. At best the spirit of nationalism is a psychic force of very vague foundations and often without a sound basis in logic.

Several pages are devoted to dividing Europe and North America into geographical areas as tending to show the influence of geography on political boundaries. This is another theory of J. W. Burgess which is of little practical importance today. Merely the space given it tends to give it undue emphasis in the mind of the student of United States government.

The subject matter of the remaining nine sections is satisfactory in the most part. One very common fallacy may be noted. On one occasion it is remarked that while the central government has jurisdiction over certain subjects, the local governments deal with things of lesser importance. On another occasion it is stated that the state legislatures are the most important branch of the state government. There may be differences of opinion in regard to these points, but a more fundamental objection is that the authors attempt to compare things which are, in their very nature, not comparable. As long as there are a number of such factors essential to reach the desired end, it marks a predilection for an unwarranted classification to insist that one element is more important than the remainder. If all are essential, it cannot be decided which is the more important.

The latter sections of the book concerning international relations and social and economic interests are significant in revealing the wide ramifications of the government. They dispel the impression sometimes given that government exists for its own sake. They emphasize the ends for which government serves only as the means. As the government continues more and more to leave behind the policies of *laissez faire*, these ends will continue to increase in number and importance.

A serious criticism in conclusion is in regard to literary style. It is frankly not of highest quality. Often a series of sentences are too short and chopped and give the impression of statistical tables. In several instances grammatical errors have crept in, and often the meaning of the authors has not been expressed clearly. Particularly when the purpose of the book is considered, these points constitute very grave defects.

There appear to be technical errors of omission on page 208, line 6, and page 451, line 4, and typographical errors on page 70, line 4, and page 404, line 21.

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Book Notes

J. E. A. Jolliffe's *Pre-feudal England: The Jutes* (Oxford University Press, New York, 1933. x, 122 pp., \$2.50), is a recent volume of the Oxford Historical Series. It is an interesting, involved, and quite technical attempt to re-create the life and government of the Jutes in Kent before feudalism and to work back to their Frankish origins in southwest Germany. By using the relatively rich surviving store of Kentish legal and tenurial records, elements of hypothetical continuity, as induced for instance from geographical distribution of lands, can be buttressed by written evidences of continuity. Established characteristics can thus be carried back to the late seventh and early eighth centuries and thereby bestow persuasiveness on a picture of hamlet settlement, free tenure, and communal coöperation before that time. It is Maitland's method applied to a somewhat neglected and at first forbidding field of conflict between Kentish custom or law and the manorial system characteristic of the Midlands which the thirteenth century lawyers laid over the abiding organization of life in Kent. It is a tribute to Mr. Jolliffe's scholarship that he disentangles his evidences into something basically approaching order and simplicity. He makes the reader's task difficult, however, by introducing and using terms before defining them and by too infrequent dating of his source materials. He may have felt that his essay would interest only specialists, but he could have won a wider audience with very slight modification of his technique. He summarizes his English hypothesis about two-thirds of the way through his book and then uses it in measuring the Jutish Kingdom in England and in rejecting the old thesis that the English Jutes came from Jutland. The happy coincidences of his own arguments with the findings of some archaeologists and students of field systems add considerable weight to his book. It would appear that he has added considerably to the historical mosaic of life in England between the fifth and tenth centuries which has been so slowly and painfully worked out during the last generation.—B.

The two volume work entitled *The March of Democracy* (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932. i, xvi, 428 pp; ii, xix, 438 pp.) by James Truslow Adams, the well known historian and essayist, contains nothing new either in fact or in interpretation. The first volume bears the sub-title "The Rise of the Union" and brings the story down to the Civil War. The second volume "From Civil War to World Power" completes the account to the present. The main thread throughout is political although social and cultural aspects are not neglected. There are some errors of fact and, as might be expected, not all would agree with Mr. Adams as far as many of his points of view and conclusions are concerned. One feature of the work deserves high commendation, namely the illustrations. No work of its kind dealing with the story of American development is so profusely illustrated. Moreover, the illustrative material is not hackneyed. Indeed, the illustrations alone are perhaps sufficient inducement

to add the volumes to one's library. For the general reader these volumes will prove to be both informing and entertaining. The scholar, however, will demand the type of craftsmanship displayed by Mr. Adams in the volume which he contributed to the *History of American Life Series* and in his volumes on the history of New England—craftsmanship which is not displayed in this, his latest work.

Volume III of the *Wisconsin Domesday Book* entitled *The Wisconsin Lead Region* (State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, 1932. vi, 341 pp.) by Joseph Schafer constitutes a valuable addition to the literature of American economic history. The title, however, is somewhat misleading for almost half the volume is devoted to the history of the development of agriculture and population changes. In fact, Dr. Schafer, in his prefatory note, very frankly states that his object was to combine the history of an important extractive industry, lead mining, with the history of the development of agriculture in the locality studied. Unfortunately the two maps (between pages 12 and

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13 and pages 114 and 115) relative to the lead mining regions are almost worthless because of their dimness. Of the four appendices that by Dr. V. C. Finch on landscape types in Southwestern Wisconsin deserves mention. Appendix number two—"Origin of the Wisconsin Lead and Zinc Deposits" by Dr. Paul A. Schaffer is informing.

Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth: Part III: Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, by Bessie Louise Pierce (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1933. 428 pp.). This book, like many others which have been sponsored by the American Historical Association, will be found of value to the research worker rather than to the student desirous of using it as a text. *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth* is an extremely thorough survey of its kind. The author has presented her facts fully and impartially neither upholding nor condemning any of the methods employed by the various societies which she has investigated. She quotes frequently from actual dispatches sent out by the organizations and all of her material has obviously been carefully selected and tested for its authenticity.

The book is written simply and taken in small doses; it is both readable and easily understandable. However, chiefly because the style is so utterly plain, it tends to become decidedly monotonous after one or two chapters. Most of the societies considered are found to have about the same methods in educating the youth of the country, their aims, in the majority of cases, are similar. It would, therefore, be more than difficult for any author to turn such material into a stirring piece of literature.—H. B. M.

The Americanization of Carl Schurz, by Chester V. Easum (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929, xi, 374 pp.), deals briefly with the early life of the "greatest German-American," showing why he came to the United States and what his intellectual equipment was at that time. The main body of the book is devoted not to a life of Schurz, but to a study of the processes by which he became assimilated into the scheme of American political life, in which he was to take so brilliant a part.—H. B. M.

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 Salmon, Lucy M. Historical material; N.Y.; Oxford Univ. Press; 261 pp.; \$2.50.
 Williams, Kenneth. Ibn Sa' ud; the puritan king of Arabia; N.Y.; Peter Smith; 299 pp.; \$3.00.
 Wilson, Howard E. The fusion of social studies in junior high schools; Cambridge; Harvard Univ. Press; 211 pp. (16 p. bibl.); \$2.50.

BIOGRAPHY

- Chinard, Gilbert. Honest John Adams; Boston; Little, Brown; 371 pp.; \$3.75.
 Walbank, F. W. Aratos of Sicyon [Greek leader, 3rd century B.C.]; N.Y.; Macmillan; 230 pp. (4 p. bibl.); \$2.75.
 Fowler, Gene. Timberline, a story of Bonfils and Tammen [owners of the Denver Post for forty years]; N.Y.; Covici Friede; 480 pp.; \$3.00.
 Mason, Alpheus T. Brandeis; lawyer and judge; Princeton; Princeton Univ. Press; 209 pp.; \$2.00.
 Belloc, Hilaire. Charles I, King of England; Phila.; Lippincott; 375 pp.; \$4.00.
 Cleveland, Grover. Letters of Grover Cleveland, 1850-1898; Boston; Houghton Mifflin; 659 pp.; \$5.00.
 Thompson, Virginia. Dupleix and his letters, 1742-1754; N.Y.; Ballow; 920 pp.; \$7.50.
 Fuller, John F. C. Grant and Lee; a study in personality and generalship; N.Y.; Scribner; 323 pp. (25 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
 Bailey, Ralph E. An American colossus; the singular career of Alexander Hamilton; Boston; Lothrop; 318 pp. (7 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
 Dennett, Tyler. John Hay; from poetry to politics; N.Y.; Dodd, Mead; 487 pp. (4 p. bibl.); \$5.00.
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 Lipsky, Abram. Martin Luther, Germany's angry man; N.Y.; Stokes; 320 pp. (4 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
 Churchill, Winston. L. S. Marlborough; his life and times; 2 vols.; N.Y.; Scribner; 311 pp. each (7 p. bibl.); \$6.00 set.
 Henderson, Daniel. The crimson queen, Mary Tudor; N.Y.; Duffield & Green; 291 pp.; \$2.50.
 Brooks, Graham. Napoleon III; N.Y.; Macmillan; 143 pp.; 75 cents.

- Mariéjol, Jean H. Philip II, the first modern king; N.Y.; Harper; 379 pp. (12 p. bibl.); \$3.75.
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 Repplier, Agnes. Junipero Serra; Garden City, N.Y.; Doubleday; 318 pp.; \$2.50.
 Fitzpatrick, John C. George Washington himself; a biography written from his manuscripts; Indianapolis; Bobbs-Merrill; 544 pp.; \$3.50.
 Russell, Phillips. William the Conqueror; N.Y.; Scribner; 352 pp.; \$3.00.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Clapper, Raymond. Racketeering in Washington; Boston; L. C. Page; 328 pp.; \$3.00.
 Holcombe, Arthur N. The new party politics; N.Y. Norton; 148 pp.; \$1.75.
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 Hughes, Roy O. Economic citizenship; Boston; Allyn & Bacon; 378 pp.; \$1.20.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

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- Races, Peoples, and Cultures in Prehistoric Europe. V. G. Childe (*History*, October).
 The Origin of Warfare. J. E. Franklyn (*Contemporary Review*, November).
 The Rôle of Parties. R. G. Caldwell (*Rice Institute Pamphlet*, April).
 Slavery and the Churches. Llewelyn Powys (*Rationalist Annals*, 1932).
 The Constitution of the Peloponnesian League. J. A. O. Larsen (*Classical Philology*, October).
 The Tradition about Caligula. M. P. Charlesworth (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, IV, no. 2).
 Non-Assertive Elements in the Language of the Roman Historians. J. J. Schlicher (*Classical Philology*, October).
 The Twelve First Roman Emperors. E. G. Sihler (*Bibliotheca Sacra*, October).
 The Medieval Attitude toward History. F. S. Lear (*Rice Institute Pamphlet*, April).
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 The Health of Napoleon during the Waterloo Campaign, with particular reference to the Events of the 17th of June. Lieut. J. S. Symons (*Army Quarterly*, October).
 The Life and Work of Turgot. Constantia Maxwell (*History*, October).
 Liberty in Sixteenth-Century Spain. A. F. G. Bell (*Bulletin of Spanish Studies*, October).

- The Crisis in Spain. Marquis del Moral (*English Review*, November).
- The Siege of Malta: a Coast Defence Epic. Fletcher Pratt (*Cavalry Journal*, September-October).
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- Bibliographical Note on Recent Work upon Stephen Langton. F. M. Powicke (*English Historical Review*, October).
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- Queen Elizabeth's Seizure of the Duke of Alva's Pay-Ships. Conyers Read (*Journal of Modern History*, December).
- Cromwell in Lancashire: the Campaign of Preston, 1648. Capt. R. A. Irwin (*Army Quarterly*, October).
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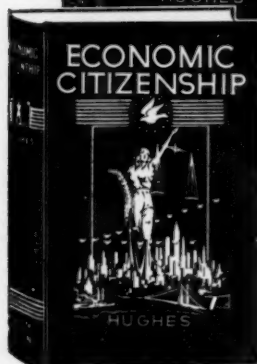
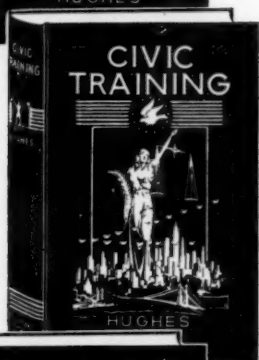
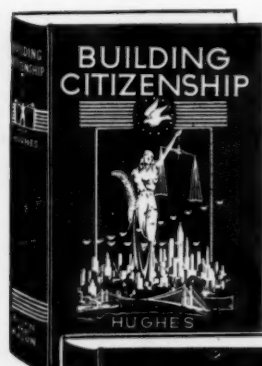
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- The Grand Strategy of the World War, I. Capt. Gordon Gordon-Smith *Cavalry Journal*, September-October).
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- The French Official Account of the Marne, 1914. (*Army Quarterly*, October).
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- Studies of World-War Propaganda, 1914-1933. R. H. Lutz (*Journal of Modern History*, December).
- Nationalism and the League of Nations Today. W. E. Rappard (*American Political Science Review*, October).

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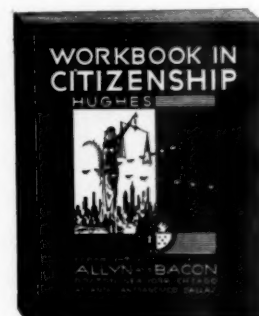
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